The Nation.

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The Week.

The Statehood bill, as it passed the House and was reported to the Senate, may as well be considered a dead measure. If any State is admitted at all, it will be Oklahoma-Indian Territory; yet the whole bill may die in conference. Whether or not it is true, as reported, that Speaker Cannon has an explicit agreement to yield in the end to the Senate amendments, there are many grounds for predicting such an outcome. The House itself, barely held in line on Thursday, when the vote was taken to send the bill to conference, could not be kept from adopting a conference report favorable to Oklahoma alone. And, finally, the country at large, which has displayed in former years only the most languid interest in the whole Statehood question, has evinced a strong and unmistakable sentiment for admitting one Territory now and letting the others wait. No one has put the case more pithily than Representative Bede. "We are looking for a quarrel with the Senate," he said. "Let us quarrel with it when the Senate is wrong and we are right. Let us not quarrel with the Senate when we are wrong and it is right."

When Senator Lodge votes against fortifications in the Philippine Islands, on the ground that on our evacuating them we shall need only a fortified harbor or two, all Americans who oppose the retention of the Philippines may well take heart. For Senator Lodge is one of those to whom the mailed fist is everything. He would have big fleets, fine armies, and awe-inspiring forts. True, he no longer twists the British lion's tail, as was once his regular habit. But, like President Roosevelt, he has a grave suspicion that there are several European Governments which are as much tempted by the amount of wealth in our New York safety-vaults as the pickpocket is attracted by a carelessly displayed purse. If, therefore, Mr. Lodge were as certain as he once was that in the Philippines we have the jewel-lands of Asia, he would not haggle over a mere $600,000 to protect them from the envious German or Japanese. But even Senators, it seems, are getting tired of squandering money on the islands from which the country gets nothing. Politically, the Philippines are nothing but a plague, and the obstinate refusal of the natives to settle down and submit to peaceful subjugation is getting on the nerves of even a Lodge. Over this and other signs of a recovery from the madness of 1898 and 1899 all true patriots may rejoice.

When is Congress in "that calm, judicial frame of mind so necessary to the preparation of a tariff act"? Never. Sereno E. Payne, chairman of the Ways and Means Committee of the House, kindly but firmly tells Representative S. W. McCall of Massachusetts that the subject cannot be considered, "so near the coming Congressional elections." The intellects of our statesmen are too much perturbed. Yet after election a movement for revision of the tariff is, as experience has abundantly shown, still more inopportune; for then Congressmen are more excited than ever. The artists of the country unanimously demand the abolition of the duty on art. They do not know, as Mr. Payne does, that the mere mention of paintings, engravings, and statuary throws our Representatives into convulsions, destroys their "judicial frame of mind," and renders them unfit for their exalted calling. Our manufacturers are opposed to a high tariff on alcohol; but "alcohol" is a word at which the stoutest blanch and tremble. Any right-minded Representative would rather suffer himself from chronic alcoholism than see the nation suffer from free alcohol in the arts. Mr. McCall and his Massachusetts friends are clamoring for free hides. The very phrase is more ominous than the primal eldest curse. It spells "disaster politically and commercially." No Congressman can listen to it and live. Let us therefore do nothing to upset Mr. Payne's philosophic calm as he views either the tariff or the coming election.

The Northern California Indian Association has issued an appeal for public support of a bill for the relief of the Indians of that State. C. E. Kelsey, secretary of the Association, who was made a special agent of the Government to investigate reports of destitution, has gone to Washington to lay before the Senate Committee on Indian Affairs the truth about the 10,000 tribesmen who are in distress. The plain fact is that the California Indians have been "marooned" on small reservations which are arid and of no present value. The case of the Campos in the southern end of the State is typical. This little remnant finds itself desert-bound and utterly unable to dig a living out of the sand. Last year the Government went so far as to provide for the Campos a white field matron, with an Indian assistant—a needed salving of a tribal sore, but a measure that should be supplemented by the removal of the whole band to another location. Mr. Kelsey and his associates will recommend the purchase of small arable allotments for the California Indians, in order to provide work for the adults who are willing to become self-supporting. The long, shameful history of the looting of the native tribes of the Pacific slope should be closed. Either the Government should adopt a vigorous policy of assistance, or make no further pretence of paternalistic care.

Attorney-General Moody's ridicule of the beef packers who had protested against Commissioner Garfield's use of alleged confidential communications, aroused applause in a Chicago court-room, but hardly covered the point at issue. He represents corporate offenders of all sorts hastening to Washington for confession and absolution, if immunity from prosecution may be secured by unbosoming one's self to a Government official. The fancy is mirth-provoking, but the packers' case finds a certain weight in the ambiguous functions of the Department of Commerce and Labor. It is one thing to confess to an officer of the law; such action is equivalent to surrender at discretion. It is quite another thing to talk freely with an engaging person who is apparently concerned merely with the disinterested compilation of industrial statistics for the use of sociologists, reformers, and similar innocuous students. Nobody will believe that Commissioner Garfield would intentionally abuse the confidence of the worst Trust that ever converted a pig into food products. On the other hand, even corporations under Government scrutiny have their rights, and it is only fair that their officers should know just what consequences a frank talk at the Department of Commerce and Labor may involve. When the scope and function of this Department is more definitely understood, it is not likely that either the Secretary or any of his aides will have to sit many hours a day in the confessional.

The decision of the Federal Court in Chicago that the indicted packers are entitled to immunity, but that the indicted corporations must stand trial, lends a certain color to President Roosevelt's theory as to responsibility for misdeeds of a corporation—the theory which he applied in the case of Paul Morton. The Chicago decision, however, lets off the individual packers because the evidence against them was obtained by the Department of Commerce and Labor, on the understanding that it was not to be used in prosecutions. Judge Humphrey's opinion, if sustained by the Supreme Court, will

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absolutely divorce the Department of Commerce and Labor from the Department of Justice. The facts obtained by Mr. Garfield may serve as a guide in framing new laws, but not as a weapon for the enforcement of old ones. The distinction is one which is not merely legal, but highly desirable. The Department of Commerce and Labor has not yet clearly proved its usefulness; but recent events show that, were it to become a mere bureau of the Department of Justice, it could make little or no headway. People who have been attacking the packers, privately as well as publicly, will not overlook the fact that they have escaped on a technicality. Their case has yet to be tried on its merits.

The Lacey bill, which provides for game refuges within the Federal forest reserves, will be favorably reported to the House, and deserves the serious attention of Congress. The plan is to set apart certain areas within which the killing of game—birds or fish—will be illegal. It is only by some such provision that the game supply of the country can be maintained. Otherwise recreation with rod or gun would very soon be restricted to members of the rapidly increasing sporting clubs. Unless there are forest asylums where the wild creatures may escape the annual slaughter, shooting in this country will soon be a matter of killing each autumn, *more Britannico*, the chicks and cubs that have been bred for that purpose the previous spring. Others than sportsmen are interested in the matter. Nature-lovers may well hail a measure that establishes a permanent "truce of God" for harried dumb creatures, and preserves a few portions of wild America in their original undesecrated seclusion.

The present session of the New York Legislature has seen such an extraordinary number of bills designed to remove or modify the restrictions of the civil-service law that the phenomenon deserves notice. The merit system of this State is established by the Constitution itself; it is so fortified by public opinion that the spoilsmen no longer attempt direct attacks. They have become sappers and miners, and, in the form of "exemption" bills, carry their tunnels against weak spots in the wall, ready to break through when the sentries happen to doze. The preference already given to civil-war veterans in respect to appointments and removals is the starting-point for most of these indirect attacks. It is proposed to extend the same privileges to veterans of all our other wars, recent or remote, to every soldier who has been in a skirmish, to every one who has been a soldier at all, volunteer or regular, whether there was fighting to be done or not, and to national guardsmen. Finally, as a crowning absurdity, volunteer firemen come up to ask for preferential treatment. The man behind the nozzle ranks himself with the man behind the gun. It is one of the curious features of certain of these bills that they are not for the sole benefit of classes likely to be politically useful. Some are so drawn that, as the Civil Service Reform Association points out, veterans of various classes could rush in from other States and receive the benefit—a form of carpet-bagging which the old soldiers at home would not be likely to appreciate. They include the regular, whose service in the field is an incident of his fixed calling, with the volunteer who went to the front, supposedly, from sheer patriotism, and is the peculiar care of the statesman. In fact, the logical end of legislation of this kind is not so much to aid the old soldier of the State as to make its civil machinery unworkable.

The Armstrong Insurance Committee has wisely decided to press at once the bill providing for the election of new trustees by policyholders. The proposed act postpones to November 15 next the elections of all mutual companies with a New York State charter. Four companies are affected—the Mutual Life, the Mutual Reserve, the New York Life, and the Security Mutual of Binghamton. The bill before the Legislature provides that, on November 15, "the terms of office of all the directors of said corporations respectively shall expire, anything to the contrary in the charter or by-laws thereof notwithstanding." It makes full and adequate arrangement for the nomination of independent candidates, requires the management to send out these independent ballots along with the "administration ticket," and allows no policyholder's proxy to be counted unless executed within two months of the election date. The importance of this last proviso lies in the fact that it renders invalid, for the November vote, both the proxies collected by Thomas W. Lawson and those lately solicited by the New York Life's own management. While legislating out of office all the existing trustees of these four companies, the bill lays no embargo whatever on their reëlection. If the majority of the policyholders, in any of these four companies, wish to return the present management to power next November, the opportunity is theirs. If they wish to reëlect some of the old trustees and drop others from the list, there is nothing to prevent them. Undoubtedly, the first sequel to the enactment of this bill would be the formation of policyholders' committees to name opposition tickets. It hardly need be added that their nominations, which must be made three months before the 15th of November, will be scrutinized and discussed as thoroughly as the management's ticket.

Even if "Federal control" of life insurance were feasible, it would be evident that the Armstrong committee has stolen President Roosevelt's thunder. To try a totally different experiment at the very moment when New York State's plan was on the eve of being tested, would be of itself absurd. But the thoroughness with which Mr. Roosevelt's scheme is disposed of by the House Judiciary Committee, practically removes it from the field of discussion. The President remarked, in his annual message last December, that "Congress has already recognized that interstate insurance may be a proper subject for Federal legislation"; his ground for this statement being that the Bureau of Corporations is allowed to inquire and publish information about insurance companies. The Chairman of the Judiciary Committee now rejoins:

> "Let it be said kindly, and not offensively, that it is a monstrous doctrine, subversive of our dual system of government, to even suggest, after the distribution of these great powers between the Federal Government and the States, that the Federal Government, created by the States, can take from the States the power they have always enjoyed and expressly reserved to them by the Constitution exclusive in the States."

Sound Constitutional reasoning this, especially when backed, as it is in Mr. Jenkins's report, by the Supreme Court's repeated declaration that insurance is not commerce and that Congress cannot impair the police power of the States. Much of the hazy reasoning lately prevalent in this matter resulted from a fancied analogy between Federal control of insurance companies and Federal charters for national banks. There is really no analogy, the national banking system having been created to serve the Government's fiscal purposes, and having been endowed with special powers in note circulation, which were denied to State banks through imposition of a Federal tax.

We will pass over the somewhat comic aspect of Mr. Jerome's excited protests against excitement. What are the facts? The Grand Jury asked instruction from Judge O'Sullivan on a point of law. Did the diversion of insurance funds to politicians constitute larceny? Before the judge was heard from, the District Attorney filed a brief arguing that no convictions could be had, because "felonious intent" could not be proved. Mr. Jerome asserted that no reputable lawyer in this city would disagree with him. But immediately the very judge of the court disagreed. Judge O'Sullivan instructed the Grand Jury that the facts alleged would constitute larceny, and that it was for them to judge of the in-

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tent. Now we submit that, on this basis of fact, all Mr. Jerome's objections and alternative offers were beside the point, and that his public duty was straightway to urge indictments under the law as laid down by the court. His argument from terrible consequences had nothing to do with the case. He says that, if Judge O'Sullivan's law is sound, then Mr. Perkins committed a felony and Messrs. Bliss and Cortelyou were receivers of stolen goods. But if that is the law, why should he object to applying it? It is of the highest public importance that this issue be tried out; and the regular way to do it is by indictment and prosecution. If Mr. Jerome felt that his declared opinion would disable him from trying the cases, he could assign his ablest assistant, as he did in the trial of Nan Patterson. In her case the District Attorney did not proceed on the assumption that he must be absolutely certain of having evidence to convict before seeking indictment. Mr. Jerome, however, has chosen to go his own gait and has sought warrants from a police-court justice. Well, we shall in that way undoubtedly get the decision of the highest court of the State upon the law of larceny. Meanwhile, we suppose there is no reason why the Grand Jury should not composedly proceed by way of orderly indictment.

In all the discussion of railroad rebating, the shipper has been invariably described as the helpless victim of corporate oppression. His modest business beginnings are snuffed out by some tool of the Trusts who has smuggled himself into a railroad staff; his humble produce is taxed as caprice or malice dictates; his profits evaporate into freight tolls. Recent testimony taken by the Interstate Commerce Commission presents the shipper in a less pitiful aspect. He habitually mislabels freights to get the advantage of a lower classification; he plays railroad against railroad until he finds one that will agree to accept his lace window-curtains as "stamped tinware," or will engage to underweigh all his shipments. In fact, the shipper reveals to the hardened railroad man unmistakable traces of the cloven hoof and forked tail. We are unwilling to be umpire in the matter of making an award for diabolism between these contestants. In particular, no layman would willingly enter the labyrinth of freight classification—a subject which admits all possibilities of jugglery on the part of him who charges and him who pays. But the recent investigations at least show that it sits ill on many a shipper to cry harrow upon the railroads, and that Government ownership or just and even application of freight rates would be quite as unwelcome to many a private man of affairs as to the very monsters of the corporate deeps.

The memorial of the American Federation of Labor, which was the occasion of the sound admonition by Mr. Roosevelt and Speaker Cannon, ended in these terms:

> "Labor now appeals to you, and we trust that it may not be in vain. But if, perchance, you may not heed us, we shall appeal to the conscience and the support of our fellow-citizens."

Evidently, the good advice received at Washington was taken amiss, for the Federation announces that it will enter politics and organize an independent Labor party. The step is momentous. For years President Gompers has opposed meddling with politics, whether as an organization or through alliance with any of the Socialist parties. But he now gives his voice for the literal fulfilment of the warning conveyed in the "bill of complaint." On the whole, one may welcome this decision of Federation. In itself a new labor faction will tend only to perplex the political situation, affording confusing opportunities of rivalry or alliance with the Socialist groups; but, to go into politics will at least compel the representatives of trade-unionism to formulate their demands and to measure them on the scale of political possibility. To sit in Congress for a session would be no mean education for a labor leader; it would tend to reconcile him to certain inevitable administrative and economic conditions which now get scant consideration in labor circles. In any case, neither Mr. Roosevelt nor Speaker Cannon need tremble in his official chair because President Gompers has taken an appeal to the people. There are many indications that the people are thoroughly wearied of the extravagant pretensions of the unionist oligarchy. From the tribunal of average good sense, unionism in its latest phase is by no means likely to obtain a favorable verdict.

In Ohio a law has been passed imposing severe penalties upon "hazing." Any one acquainted with college life is aware of the difficulty in convincing juries of genuine criminality in hazing, except in such cases as would evidently warrant action under existing criminal law. Hence the Ohio legislation is not likely to prove effective as such; but it is significant of an irritated state of public feeling toward current manifestations of "college life." No country has been so ready to lavish its wealth upon higher institutions of learning as our own. The people tax themselves freely for great State universities, tens of thousands contribute of their little store to be duplicated by the rich in the interests of denominational colleges, and still larger numbers make heroic sacrifices that their own sons and daughters may have the advantages thus rendered possible. Most of these classes feel that there is something radically wrong when the college is continually before the public with a notoriety based upon the trivial, the lawless, the criminally reckless, or at best the merely subordinate, and not the things for which it was created to stand. But there is a defect in home training which constitutes contributory negligence.

Hustling the Hapsburgs is the latest recreation of an ever-active Administration. Ambassador Francis was confirmed as *persona grata* before Ambassador Storer's recall was formally notified to the Austrian Foreign Office. We hope Mr. Roosevelt will have no patience with the plea of doddering Continental diplomacy for its obsolete and foolish conventions. If we are ever going to teach the Old World that a wink is as good as a word, or better, Vienna is the place to begin. There the moss-back tradition of Metternich still persists in the face of a telephonic age. Bless you, they don't even read the New York papers on the Ballhaus-Platz. How can they expect to know when an Ambassador has been recalled? What can you do with people like that, except plump a new Ambassador upon them and make them "sit up"? We are heartily glad that this effete chancellery is at last getting its lesson in the new diplomacy.

Gen. Kuropatkin's analysis of the cause of the Russian collapse in Mantchuria results in the not very startling statement that a rotten bureaucratic system was at the root of the disaster. This will account, in a way, for the notorious shortage of supplies and appropriate artillery early in the war; it explains rather less directly the general ignorance and lack of initiative among the Russian officers. The former commander-in-chief declares that promotion by favoritism or by routine, irrespective of merit, had driven many of the best officers out of the army. In this avowal there is a lesson for a nation that still keeps its army in politics, and regulates promotion more or less by political and personal influences. Into the deeper causes of the Mantchurian fiasco Gen. Kuropatkin, so far as the cable reports him, did not enter. Evidently these are to be found in general social conditions in Russia. The officers of the army are drawn from an aristocracy at once ignorant and dissipated, who bring to the very exacting duties of command no better qualifications than a certain good fellowship and personal courage. Gen. Kuropatkin's valedictory order thus becomes, perhaps unconsciously, a potent argument for opening the military career to talent, regardless of social rank, and for hastening the liberalizing of the Russian Government.

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LABOR'S IMPOSSIBLE DEMANDS.

ORGANIZED LABOR: Call at the White House or the Speaker's Room, and you will hear of something to your advantage.

No such advertisement appeared in any Washington paper on March 21, so far as we can discover, but what happened would have justified its insertion. Various officials of the Federation of Labor saw the President and the Speaker of the House and got some of the most refreshingly straight and wholesome talk they have listened to for many a day. They will not profit by it as much as they should, but the country stands to gain by the frank words of Mr. Roosevelt and Speaker Cannon. For a long time there has been a growing, we will not say arrogance, but obtuseness, in the demands of trades unions, and it is well that they should be squarely met.

We do not say that labor leaders are without a grievance against politicians. The latter have flattered and fooled organized Labor to the top of its bent. Promises impossible of fulfilment have been made. Votes have been sought and, perhaps, obtained on what amounts to false pretences. It is not to be wondered at, then, if those who have been taken in by the hopes held out of creating a labor millennium by legislation, should descend resentfully upon the legislators with a demand for an explanation. In particular, we think that the professed guardians of labor have a just complaint against the Republican party. It has undertaken to enact laws of which the declared intent was to make American workingmen a specially favored class. It has professed to keep their wages high by a protective tariff. It has favored an eight-hour day in Government employ. Yet when it came to be a question of doing a great piece of national work at Panama on strictly business principles, both the tariff and the eight-hour day were thrown over. There is, no doubt, a deep inconsistency here. If it is right that our laws, as the tariff-makers pretend, should give special privileges to laboring men, we ought not to draw back just because the money cost threatens to be too great. This makes it look as if the Government were willing that the private consumer should be made to sweat by the tariff and by labor exactions, though it will not itself tolerate them. This is highly illogical, from the labor point of view, and so also is the refusal of the Republican party to "protect" American workmen effectually by excluding competing immigrants.

But the moment that Mr. Gompers and the others screwed their courage to the sticking-point, put their demands down in black and white, and took them in person to the responsible officers of the Government, all the world could see upon what untenable ground they stand. In effect, these great enemies of monopoly wish to perfect a monopoly of their own. They desire to be exempt from the ordinary processes of the courts—processes which, as the President showed, they are the first to invoke against employers of labor. These haters of privilege covet the most intolerable of all privileges for themselves. Many of them foreign-born, or the children of immigrants, they would cut off from others the opportunities which they themselves have enjoyed. Complaining that they suffer from discrimination, they would discriminate ruthlessly against the Chinese. Throughout, their programme is one of thoroughgoing exclusion and monopoly. The Standard Oil Company never did anything more cruel and remorseless in crushing a rival than these representatives of organized labor stand ready to do in the case of laborers from abroad or outside the unions.

For the great plainness of speech which the President used, we must all thank him. And the Speaker was not far behind. With a free use of the vernacular which the labor delegates must have appreciated, he told them that they were not "the whole shooting-match." There are the workmen to be considered who have refused to wear the shackles of unionism. There is the large interest of the country as a whole to be consulted. Labor as a "class" is as unknown to our laws and the spirit of our institutions as are doctors as a class or mine-owners or clergymen or millionaires. This is the point which the President brought out with salutary emphasis. To ask exemption from the general law of the land, to demand a special status of any kind, is to seek something un-American, revolting to the sense of fair play, destructive of the only equality we know. We hope he will keep the same principles out of the scabbard, and lay about with them as vigorously when ship-subsidy hunters come to see him and when the protected manufacturers raise their wails; but, at all events, he did one good day's work. The ring of sincerity in his indignation at the pretensions of his labor visitors was unmistakable; and the flat-footed way in which he told them what he would and would not do, without a single politician's shuffle or juggling with words, was worth a ton of abstract discourses about the square deal.

This labor descent upon Washington goes to swell that mounting wave of Socialism which, under one name and another, is, as Professor MacDonald said at Providence last week, threatening to break upon us. There is no occasion to be hysterical about it. We shall doubtless see many excesses, but most of them will effect their own cure. Politicians will play their little games. Already the Hearst papers are rushing in to say how differently *he* would have received the dear workingmen. But things will settle themselves in the end if our responsible citizenship steadies itself to fight for even-handed justice for all, with the abolition of every special privilege. We must, however, give our political truths their full scope and bearing. We cannot deny favors to laboring men as a class while continuing favors to manufacturers as a class. In a word, if we wish to attack the socialistic tendencies of the day in their great source and provocation, we are bound to do all that we can to get rid of the protective tariff.

THE SENATE AS A FOUNT OF KNOWLEDGE.

Senator Lodge uttered a timely and much needed word on Thursday. The country has been getting very anxious of late over the possibility that what Senator Spooner correctly calls a "whirlwind of abuse charged with wickedness and folly," might seriously disturb the Senate in the calm and high-minded performance of its Constitutional duties. Senator Lodge has allayed all fears. Referring to the criticisms of the Senate, "penny-a-line" and other, he said that that body would continue to perform its duty regardless of them. Both the Senate and the Executive, he asserted without fear of denial, "could take care of their own fortunes." We are not so sure about Mr. Roosevelt, but we think every candid man will agree that the members of the Senate do take extremely good care of their fortunes. Men like Senators Aldrich, Elkins, Clark, Alger, and Proctor, to mention only a few, have displayed what we may be pardoned for calling a marked aptitude in this direction.

One great cause of some of the popular misconceptions of the Senate is the limited circulation of the *Congressional Record*. The public depends too much upon brief and mangled dispatches from Washington, which often emphasize merely a sensational happening and give no conception whatever of the mingled pathos and bathos, wisdom, humor, sarcasm, the keen, incisive, self-contained yet self-assured methods of dealing with public affairs which mark the Senate in its treatment of our legislative problems. People may write us if they wish about the need of more and better public schools. We for our part should be content with things as they are if we could but place a copy of the *Congressional Record* in the hands of every man and woman in this fair land. Were this done, correspondence schools and universities by extension might fade away. Not only would the most instructive printed matter in the world be placed in the hands of the toiling plain people, but they would refuse to patronize the ten-cent monthlies, and the power of these publications to misrepresent the Senate would be a thing of the past.

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Take, for instance, the Senate debate on March 20 on the great question whether the Philippines should or should not be fortified. It shows the Senate at its best, dignified, bent on knowledge, ready to regard the question from every point of view with scholarly thoroughness. The first matter to be settled was whether Subig Bay or Manila should be fortified; Senator Perkins favoring the latter, Senators Lodge and Bacon Subig Bay. Quite naturally, the drydock Dewey played an important part in the discussion. We append a brilliant extract from the debate, which speaks for itself:

"Mr. Perkins—As to the harbor of Subig Bay, there is nothing now there.
"Mr. Lodge—The Dewey dry dock will be there.
"Mr. Perkins—The dock is not yet there.
"Mr. Lodge—Well, we hope it will get there.
"Mr. Perkins—We all hope so. If it had been built in San Francisco it would have been there by this time.
"Mr. Spooner—Where was that dry dock built?
"Mr. Perkins—At a port on the Atlantic Coast—Philadelphia.
"Mr. Spooner—It seems to be a pretty plain case, as the Senator puts it, that the public interest would have been much better subserved by the construction of that dock in California; and I ask why was it not constructed there?
"Mr. Perkins—If I had had my way, it would have been; but unfortunately my friend from Massachusetts had more influence than I.
"Mr. Lodge—I did not even know where it was built.
"Mr. Perkins—The Senator spoke of the dock.
"Mr. Lodge—I asked the Senator where the dock was built, and he said it was built at League Island, Philadelphia. I merely suggested, in speaking of American labor, that there were American laborers on the Atlantic Coast.
"Mr. Perkins—I spoke of the tolls for going through the Suez Canal.
"Mr. Lodge—What bearing that has on Subig Bay I do not know.
"Mr. Perkins—The Senator said the dry dock was to go to Subig Bay, as I understood.
"Mr. Lodge—It is not yet there, but we hope it will be there.
"Mr. Frye—When is it supposed it will reach there?
"Mr. Perkins—I see it stated this morning that it is supposed it will reach there by Christmas. At the rate of progress it has been making I think it will be long after Christmas before it reaches there."

This, we submit, presents the Senate in its most characteristic mood, and our position is not changed by the fact that the Dewey was built at Sparrows Point, Maryland. Homer must nod sometimes.

But our next quotation from this masterly debate shows why we want the *Congressional Record* in the hands of the young:

"Mr. Perkins—When the dock reaches there, we have automobile topedoes, we have submarine mines and submarine boats, and we can easily protect that dock with very much less expense than it would be to build fortifications for which we have had no particular plan as yet presented to us. When I was a boy in Maine, when I went with the lumbermen into the woods to get out timber, in the first place we cut down the trees, then ran the chalk line to see what it would square up, and then they would hew to the line. If you were building a fence or a house, you would first make a plan, so as to know what that fence or house was to be constructed of and what it would cost you before you expended any amount of money upon it."

Rarely have we seen so much sound practical sense and valuable information crowded into one paragraph and stated so attractively. But this process of education did not end here. The island of Batan figures next:

"Mr. Perkins—I should like to call the attention of the Senator to the chart of Manila Bay.
"Mr. Lodge—I have not been there, but I am fairly familiar with the chart.
"Mr. Perkins—I should also like to call the attention of the Senator from Massachusetts to Batan Island.
"Mr. Lodge—I know where that is, too.
"Mr. Perkins—I am sure we did wisely in purchasing those mines.
"Mr. Lodge—Yes, but suppose we find an iron mine and it is wise to secure it; is it then to be argued that we must move the naval station over to the iron mine? The naval station is military. It is not merely to be near a coal mine. The object is the military value, and the military value of Subig Bay is admitted by every expert whose opinion is worth anything."

We are sure that nothing so useful as this could be heard in the same time in either Reichstag or Parliament, and it gains rather than loses by its marked resemblance to passages from 'Alice in Wonderland.' But while Alice had difficulty in always finding out just what play was the proper one to come next, the Senate is in no danger of being deprived of accurate information:

"Mr. Lodge—I do not think it will be necessary, if we have a strong base at Subig Bay, to enter on very extensive fortifications in Manila Harbor.
"Mr. Beveridge—It is only seventy miles away.
"Mr. Lodge—It is only seventy miles away, and Manila is such a large bay that the way to protect Manila is with a fleet. The fleet that holds Subig Bay is master of Manila.
"Mr. Perkins—There is no question about that. The only trouble is, it is seventy miles from the place we want to fortify.
"Mr. Burrows—Will the Senator allow me to correct him—that is, if the Secretary of War knows anything about it, and I think he does, because he has spent considerable time in the islands? He says it is only thirty-five.
"Mr. Perkins—That must be overland.
"Mr. Lodge—Does the Senator mean to say it is a shorter distance by land than by water?"

There was much more of this discussion—pages and pages and pages of it—and every remark shows with what utter disregard of time and labor the people's interests were safeguarded. As our readers know, the upshot of the inquiry was that no fortifications whatever were voted. After such a demonstration of the capacity and usefulness of the Senate, one would think the whirlwind of abuse might stop for at least one issue of the "ten-centers."

A TEST OF ORTHODOXY.

In the coming trial of the Rev. Algernon S. Crapsey of Rochester for heresy, the Episcopal Church must answer a grave and far-reaching question: What are the limits of orthodoxy?

The issue is presented clearly. Dr. Crapsey accepts fully and proclaims boldly the teachings of modern science and the logical implications of those teachings. He rejects, for example, the miraculous:

"Natural forces are now known to be unchangeable in their nature and uniform in their operation. They know nothing of man and care nothing for his wishes; the only way he can profit by them is by obeying them; if he puts himself under their guidance, they will help him; if he gets in their way, they will destroy him."

On this assumption of the immutability of natural law, Dr. Crapsey denies the dogmas of the virgin birth and the divinity of Christ as those dogmas are commonly understood:

"If we are told of a certain being in human form, born of a human mother, expressing consciousness in human speech; living a human life and dying a human death, we naturally predicate of such a one a human fatherhood as well as a human motherhood; for universal experience bears witness to the fact that every one who is the child of a human mother is also the child of a human father. To overcome this presupposition, which is established by universal experience, would require testimony of overwhelming force. The burden of proof lies with those who deny, not with those who assert, the validity of universal experience to establish a given fact."

This reasoning, we need hardly remind our readers, follows closely the classic argument of Hume's essay, "Of Miracles." "There must," said the eighteenth-century philosopher, "be an uniform experience against every miraculous event, otherwise the event would not merit that appellation. And as an uniform experience amounts to a proof, there is here a direct and full proof, from the nature of the fact, against the existence of any miracle; nor can such a proof be destroyed or the miracle rendered credible but by an opposite proof which is superior." Hume concludes, therefore, "that no testimony is sufficient to establish a miracle, unless the testimony be of such a kind that its falsehood would be more miraculous than the fact which it endeavors to establish."

Dr. Crapsey, however, unlike some earlier disbelievers in miracles, feels that his faith in the essentials of Christianity is strengthened rather than weakened. He is not disturbed because "the Bible is not a miraculous book, which orthodoxy claims it to be"; or because "Jesus, the son of Joseph, no longer stands apart from the common destiny of man in life and death." On the contrary, the Rochester clergyman finds cause for fresh hope and courage in the fact that Christ "is in all things like as we are—born as we are born, dying as we die; and both in life and death is in the keeping of that same divine power, that heavenly fatherhood, which delivers us from the womb and carries us down to the grave." To Dr. Crapsey the change in view is a source, not of alarm, but of relief:

"We are no longer compelled to look upon the scientific movement as irreligious, but we are able to see in it a new and greater religion, a religion based not upon

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the sporadic miracle, but upon the eternal law. We are no longer compelled to look for our God in some obscure event of the past; we have but to lift up our eyes to see him in the outgoings of the evening and morning, in all the days of our pilgrimage."

Without quibbling or equivocation, Dr. Crapsey stands, doctrinally, exactly where many Unitarians and others of the unorthodox stand, and have been standing for several generations. In this situation three paths lie before him. The easiest and perhaps the simplest is to follow certain predecessors over to Unitarianism. He may feel, however, that the Episcopal Church, with its formularies, its compact and efficient organization, and its history and traditions, offers him personally greater opportunities for usefulness—provided it will tolerate his beliefs.

If he remains an Episcopalian, he still has two ways to choose from. At the close of the general convention of 1904 the House of Bishops issued a pastoral letter, saying: "If one finds, whatever his office or place in the Church, that he has lost his hold upon the fundamental verities, then in the name of common honesty let him be silent or withdraw." In the name of common honesty, Dr. Crapsey declares, he will not be guilty of that cowardly hypocrisy of silence which the bishops urge. This position the *Church Standard* commends as "absolutely just." By refusing to withdraw, he purposes to test the attitude of the Church. As a writer in the *Sun* puts it, Dr. Crapsey feels that he still holds to the fundamental verities. Under such circumstances, "the plain duty of a religious teacher" is to "throw upon his Church the responsibility of proclaiming before the world the limits of its toleration and defining the precise doctrines excluded from further inquiry or modification."

Dr. Crapsey has the support of a large number of the more liberal clergy and laymen. His case was in the minds of many who signed the circular letter printed in the *Evening Post* of January 30. Among the subscribers to that document were Dean George Hodges and several professors of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, and the Revs. Loring W. Batten, Percy Stickney Grant, and John P. Peters of this city. They assert that the "historical validity" of details of New Testament narrative "must ultimately be determined in the court of trained research." George Foster Peabody, another of the signers, has written a public letter in which he says that a decision against Dr. Crapsey might "make it impossible for sincere and earnest young men in college and seminary to contemplate taking the ordination vows." He looks forward to the possibility, "within reasonable time," of "a revisal of the language now in use in the Episcopal Church." If Dr. Crapsey's heresies are accepted as ortnodoxy, a revision of the Apostles' Creed as well as the Nicene would logically follow. The doctrines set forth in these formulas of faith would no longer be binding; and the language could no longer be interpreted in the natural sense. They would be literally creeds outworn.

ASPECTS OF COMPARATIVE LITERATURE.

The appointment of a professor of comparative literature at Harvard, after the chair had remained vacant for several years, is a matter of more than academic interest. The new incumbent, Professor Schofield, is preëminently a mediævalist. He has published numerous ingenious studies in the field of legend and folklore. After the fashion of his master, the lamented Gaston Paris, he traces the affiliations of legends and stories through all the versions in what may be called the culture tongues to their crudest variant in the remotest *patois*. Such study deals chiefly with matter that is not literature at all in any but a loose sense. It is primarily an investigation of the interrelations of the stock subjects of mediæval story-tellers — a branch of historica science. It deals mostly with the least important manifestation of the mediæval spirit, and regards as literature any document whatever that affords a clue to the history of a legend. Such studies are of an engrossing sort, and require that extraordinarily discursive reading and retentive memory which Professor Schofield exemplifies so well. Occasionally, work of this kind assumes a form that may itself fairly be called literature. This was the case with Gaston Paris, and is with M. Bédier; they are almost the only mediævalists possessed by the comparative idea who themselves have contributed to modern letters.

We have no intention of denying to the literature of the Middle Age a certain place in humane letters. Yet, if one excepts Dante, Petrarch, Boccaccio, and Chaucer, there is scarcely a mediæval text between the First Crusade and the fall of Constantinople a knowledge of which is in any sense indispensable to culture. The sinking of the rest would lose us much interesting reading, and would efface in the period prior to the true Middle Ages a fascinating legendary world; it would, however, leave no very important tract of the human spirit uninterpreted. Whatever criticism of life there is in mediæval literature as a whole is vague and casual. Its form is relatively monotonous and inexpressive. The great emotions it professes to invoke, it seldom realizes with any poignancy. Except in a few lyrics, the structural sense of the Middle Ages is weak and faulty, in singular contradistinction to the architectonic character of its social order and its actual achievement in monumental building.

In fine, no student who has not wholly lost his sense of literary proportion approaches a mediæval writer with the reverence appropriate to the great masters. No reader of Virgil has anything very serious to do with Chrétien de Troyes or Benoît de Ste.-Maure. Indeed, most writers of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries had a very correct apprehension that they fell not only far below the Virgilian, but also measurably beneath the Ovidian standard. For this reason it would be matter of regret if Harvard were to restrict "comparative literature" to instruction in what is literature at all only in the slighter and less significant sense. The authorities at Cambridge cannot, of course, hope to develop an adequate department of comparative literature along any such narrow lines.

In any case, there is a growing dissent from the purely philological view. To an expanding school of students, best represented, perhaps, by the late Joseph Texte, comparative literature deals primarily with humane letters and with the direct or reciprocal influences of literary cultures. Texte, for example, thoroughly traced Rousseauism from its mixed French and English origins to its effects upon all the nations of Europe. At Columbia, Professor Woodberry founded courses in comparative literature which embraced particularly the literary internationalism of the Renaissance. His pupils have published comprehensive treatises on such topics as Renaissance criticism and the influence of the Spanish upon the English drama. Professor Saintsbury's portentously big and learned 'History of Criticism' is an attempt to trace the entire history of European taste in literature. Such studies have the obvious advantage of bringing the investigator into close contact with great literature. No one can have studied minutely the history of any literary influence since the Renaissance without covering a considerable portion of the field of humane letters. Furthermore, the implications of such study force one to travel the main routes of human intelligence from Grecian times to our own. No one can deny the utility of such studies for our university students. They should produce men of wide and sympathetic culture—ideal incumbents of our college chairs of literature.

It is evident that one may have threshed out the quiddity of a score of mediæval legends without having come into stimulating contact with the literature that to-day counts for culture. A personality like that of the late Francis J. Child, combining the widest reading and appreciation with minute specialization on material seldom literary, must of necessity be rare. No one will understand us as depreciating such investigations as resulted in the 'English

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and Scottish Popular Ballads.' They furnish an admirable example of industry, insight, and method for all scholars; they open up to popular appreciation a *genre* of peculiar freshness and charm. Yet the drying-up effect upon most men of these minutely historical and extra-literary studies is well known. We cannot produce really educated teachers of any literature by confining the studies of their best years to what is barely literature at all.

RICHTER AND GERMAN LIBERALISM.

The death a few days ago of Eugen Richter, the last of the great German Liberal leaders who were directly inspired by the ideals of 1848 and 1849, calls fresh attention to the way in which the Liberals in that country have been ground between the upper stone of Imperialism and the nether stone of Socialism. Richter himself was truly a magnificent Parliamentary figure, both in ability and in personality. His great friend and co-worker, Ludwig Bamberger, was one of the exiles from Germany after the Revolution of 1849; Richter was too young to be active at that time. But the spirit which animated Kinkel, Kapp, Von Unruh, our own Carl Schurz, and a host of others, was Richter's as well. To his ideals he added extraordinary powers as an orator and as a statesman. Absolutely fearless, he was known as the most successful Parliamentary antagonist Bismarck ever had. As Bebel is to-day, so Richter was denounced by the great Chancellor as a *Reichsfeind*, "an enemy of the Empire," and in return he criticised, scored, badgered, and fairly drew blood from Bismarck until the latter frequently lost his temper completely.

Bamberger and Richter alike never experienced any sea changes in their Liberal, or, as they were better known, Radical opinions. Both were ardent Free Traders and followers of the Manchester school; they were Bismarck's sharpest critics in all matters financial. They championed the freedom of the individual with an earnestness which never failed to tell. They and their immediate following were thoroughgoing anti-Imperialists in that they believed the nation's first duty to be at home. But far more interesting to them than over-sea ventures were the freedom of opinion of the press and the individual in Germany, and the social progress of the masses. Others might rejoice over the beginnings of a colonial policy, which Richter lived to see a costly and terrible failure; he and his colleagues were far more concerned with Bismarck's creation of a powerful centralized government, ruling less by the consent of the governed than by the might of its police power, to which the "man of blood and iron" resorted so readily. A leader in the trades-union movements, Richter knew nothing of caste, and so he naturally became one of the chief combatants of the anti-Semite agitation. But he had the keenest eye for illicit privileges of any kind, whether those of the military autocrat or of the protectionist or the selfish agrarian.

To every cause he brought extraordinary knowledge, what the London *Times* calls "a Gladstonian faculty of making figures live and speak," and an inexhaustible power of laborious research and study. Idealists as he and his associates were, they were none the less practical men. Bamberger once wrote that their Opposition was "not that of the beer philosopher of Berlin and Frankfort, who demands that the Outs bring him the very stars in heaven—from which he would certainly run away if they did fall to earth." The Liberal Opposition, he declared, "took part in the living world, where things were actually going on, and developed itself and the common weal by copious draughts of pure, fresh air and unceasing labor." Neither he nor Richter believed that the way to the millennium was marked "Socialism." Karl Marx and Lasalle were their warm personal friends, but political enemies. Richter himself studied, years ago, some of the problems which many Americans are now approaching as if they had never been heard of before in any other clime, at any other time; and he rejected the solutions offered by the Social-Democracy. Attack him as they would, his opponents, whether repressionists or revolutionaries, found him ever on the alert and an invincible antagonist, if only because of his unfailing good humor and cheerfulness, and because his own character was so spotless, his integrity beyond all question.

Yet it was Richter's fate to see the Liberal movement, once so powerful, shrink into insignificance. Perhaps it would have been wiser if he and his comrades had opposed with greater vigor the latter-day manifestations of Imperialism. They failed, as some of their successors do to-day, to see how militarism menaces Liberalism. And so the Social-Democrats took from them a powerful weapon, which Bebel still wields with enormous advantage. Had Bismarck had even a slight sympathy with Liberal ideals, the tremendous growth of the Social-Democracy which swamped Liberalism would at least have been postponed, if not prevented. The social and political reforms for which the Liberals contended would have made the proletariat far less ready to accept the doctrines of communism. Denied them, its members have in despair thrown themselves into the arms of the revolutionists, whose ranks contain to-day greater leaders than are left to the Liberals.

But he would be pessimistic, indeed, who should say that the golden age of German Liberalism has gone for all time. The astounding triumph of the corresponding party in England is an example of the speed with which political revolutions may occur. There are already signs of an approaching Liberal reunion in Germany. Ever since the elections of 1903, efforts have been made to bring together the two Liberal groups and the *Volkspartei* of South Germany with considerable success, conferences having brought out the fact that a common programme was not impossible of adoption. In Bavaria and Baden, too, there has been much progress, particularly in the latter State, where the National Liberals have been really democratized. On the 17th of February a general assembly at Frankfort adopted a basic programme upon which all Liberals can unite. At this convention there was displayed a praiseworthy readiness to overlook minor differences. Of course, this affects only a small portion of the Liberals, but it may be fairly heralded as a promising beginning of Liberal rehabilitation.

THE SURRENDER TO SOCIALISM.

LONDON, March 9, 1906.

On the second of March the Education (Provision of Meals) Bill passed through its second reading in the House of Commons. It passed without a division. One member of Parliament alone ventured to offer any vigorous opposition. Yet the bill is no ordinary measure. It imposes a new and heavy burden of a strictly incalculable amount on the overtaxed ratepayer. It in reality extends the area of poor relief. It protects parents who in truth derive aid from the rates from the disability of pauperism. Virtual paupers will be able to vote for the man whom they find most inclined to increase the benefits which they are to receive from the state; a man, under the bill, may be a voter who calmly leaves to the public the cost of supporting his children. With the details of the bill I do not care to trouble your readers; my object is to insist upon the light thrown by the reception of this hazardous measure upon the characteristics of a modern House of Commons.

The first and most marked feature of the debate of Friday last is the extraordinary levity with which the present House of Commons accepts a proposal which, whether good or bad, amounts in principle to a social revolution. If there be one English institution which more than another ought to be touched or modified with only the greatest care and circumspection, it is the Poor Law. Our system of poor relief affects not only the wages, but also the moral tone of the whole body of wage-earners. It is admittedly the weak point in our social arrangements. Not much more than seventy years have passed since ill-considered distribution of public alms pauperized the poor whom it was meant to relieve, and well-nigh brought the country to ruin. The so-called new Poor Law was the salvation of England. The man who relaxes the Poor Law is proceeding along a path of which the perils are known; he at least

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may be expected to step slowly and with the utmost discretion, to proceed gravely and even sadly. This, however, is not the spirit in which a House of Commons, fresh with the vigor of a new election, passes a bill which gives an extension to poor relief that might have astounded even the bigoted opponents of the Reform of 1834.

The House of Commons is supposed to be in a special sense the guardian of the taxpayers' money, but the House has accepted the novel principle that the nation must feed children who attend elementary schools, without making even an effort to ascertain the cost of the experiment. One member suggests, apparently with reason, that it involves an expenditure of from twelve to fifteen millions a year. He is interrupted with shouts of "No! No!" but no one gives even an approximate estimate of the expense involved in a change which commands popular support. The general tone of the House certainly is that, somehow or other, the schoolchildren must be adequately fed by the nation if their parents will not undertake to feed them. The arguments used in favor of a scheme which, conceal the matter as you will, must in many cases relieve neglectful parents from the performance of one of their most obvious duties, are singularly feeble. One member tells us that "the youth of the nation are the trustees of prosperity"; that you cannot teach a starving child, and that in his opinion free meals are no more demoralizing than free education. Mr. Birrell is a member of the Government and a man of talent. He meets the most obvious objections with witticisms that we are told raised laughter. When he announces that man "was born of a woman and not of the Local Government Board," he rouses "loud laughter." He thinks, or asserts, "that there is not much use in saying that this question [of providing food for school children] was part of a larger question," because "everything is part of a larger question." To the objection that the proposal he supports may involve future perils, he has the easy reply that he is "quite content" to leave posterity to deal with a great many other questions that might arise. *Après moi le déluge*, the silly maxim of a worthless king, seems to be the wisdom of our modern democrat.

Nor does the lack of serious argument alone show the levity of the House. One speaker after another betrayed a suspicion that the bill before them might bring considerable evils upon the nation. Yet even critics dealt with it in a very gingerly manner; their attitude is for the most part summed up by the words of a member who said that he was not "altogether in accord with the bill before the House, but he did not wish to say very much in the way of criticism." One man, it is true, Mr. Harold Cox, spoke out his mind boldly; he moved "that it is undesirable to proceed further with the measure, which would diminish the responsibility of the parents for the maintenance of their children, and would tend to lower the wages of the poorer classes." He spoke, and spoke well; but this effort of plain-spokenness sheds a curious light on the temper of the House. Not a single member seconded Mr. Cox's amendment; it fell to the ground without a division, and Mr. Burns, as a member of the Cabinet, pledged the Government to see that the bill should get through this session. The bill was not a Government measure, but it is now accepted by the Ministry.

If the levity of the House of Commons is noteworthy, the sentiment of the House, which no doubt to a great extent (though to what exact extent no one knows) represents the feeling of the nation, is also deserving of attention. There can be no real doubt that the Provision of Meals Bill, taken together with plans for the relief of the unemployed and the promises held out of the provision at some indefinite period of old-age pensions at the expense of the State, is an unmistakable sign of the prevalence of beliefs or feelings which certainly savor of Socialism. Whoever has noted the growth of opinion during the last twenty or thirty years, must feel that the prevalence of ideas absolutely opposed to the beliefs which constituted the Liberalism or Radicalism of fifty years ago, is no sudden revolution, but rather the outcome of causes the slow but constant working of which in England may be traced back through the history of a generation. The virtues no less than the defects of an Englishman of to-day make him look with something like favor on socialistic experiments—as long, at any rate, as they do not actively interfere with his own comfort. His humanity urges him to relieve physical suffering, he perceives keenly the evils and pains resulting from poverty, he is in reality much more sympathetic than were Englishmen (say) at the beginning of the nineteenth century. He has, on the other hand, no firm belief in or grasp of political or economical principles; he has grown up in a country where the power of the State is constantly on the increase; he has ceased to feel enthusiastic about self-help. Indolence no less than humanity suggests to him that he can perform his duty to his poorer neighbors by voting that their wants shall be met by money supplied by rates or taxes, *i. e.*, at the expense of the State. The wage-earners themselves, though, according to all the evidence that can be obtained, better off than were the workingmen of (say) 1850, feel the contrast between poverty and riches more acutely than did their parents. Add to this, that they too have become accustomed to receive help either directly or indirectly from the State, and have imbibed a sort of natural Socialism. Then, too, the growth of the feeling in favor of State help has coincided in England with the development of democracy. As I have already pointed out in other letters, the creation of the Labor Party is the most important political fact of the day. It is the manifest sign of a changed spirit. In so far, then, as members of Parliament honestly lean to socialistic ideas, they represent a sentiment of which account must be taken; and if a disinterested thinker may hold that in this matter members of Parliament share the failings no less than the virtues of the times, he can hardly blame the representatives of the people if they sincerely represent the sentiment of the day.

Unfortunately, the ready acceptance of a bill open to much criticism is a symptom of two of the worst diseases which undermine parliamentary life—cowardice and party spirit. It clearly betrays the cowardice which attacks men who, though they may be in private life persons of vigor and honesty, feel that their success in public life depends upon humoring the weaknesses of the constituents to whom they owe their seats. The unanimity with which the House of Commons assented to a bill of dubious expediency is of itself ominous. No man of sense can believe that there were not many members of Parliament who distrusted a measure which they hesitated to criticise and were determined not to oppose. Why could Mr. Cox find no seconder? The answer lies ready to hand: it is to be found in the existence of the Labor Party. But lack of courage was here connected with the fatal influence of partisanship. Personal selfishness is less influential than party spirit. A politician who might risk his own seat is not willing to injure his party. No Conservative will, if he can avoid it, do or say anything which might seem to show that the Tories care less for the children of the poor than do Radicals. No Radical is prepared to oppose a popular measure, even though grounded on false principles, if his action may give currency to the idea that the Tories are the real friends of the people.

We may read in that most interesting 'Memoir of Henry Sidgwick' that about twenty-one years ago he listened to a debate in the House of Commons on the Medical Relief Bill, the aim of which was to provide at the public expense medical relief to a workingman in sickness without imposing upon him the disabilities of pauperism. Sidgwick was no economical doctrinaire, but he saw at once the bad side of all legislation that aims at diminishing the discredit which a man incurs by living on public charity. The practical philanthropists were, in 1885, opposed to the Medical Relief Bill. "They have," writes Sidgwick, "been trying hard for fifteen years to teach the poor thrift, and now the moral weight of the Legislature is to be thrown into the other scale as far as medical relief is concerned." A day or two after the debate which he had heard, Sidgwick notices that the Liberal Opposition had extended instead of diminishing the effect of the bill introduced by the Conservative Government of the day. The Ministry meant to provide only medicine for workingmen struck with illness. The Liberal Opposition insisted that a wage-earner when ill should receive not only medicine, but food at the expense of the State. The Liberals saw an opportunity of proving that Short was the friend of the people after all, and not Codlin. The result was, that a sick man could receive outdoor relief paid for by the Poor Rate, and yet retain the Parliamentary franchise of which the law deprives a pauper. It needed far less than Henry Sidgwick's acumen to see that the time was fast approaching "when all paupers out of the workhouse would be enfranchised in the unseemly competition for popularity." His language exactly applies to the events of to-day. The unseemly competition for popularity is becoming more and more active. A Government supported by a gigantic majority bows the knee to the Labor Party. The men who make up the majority are themselves the slaves at once of fear and of party spirit. The weak Opposition is, naturally enough, neither bolder nor more honest than a strong Ministry. The House of Commons

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has surrendered to Socialism. The interests of the country are being sacrificed to the unseemly competition for popularity.

AN OBSERVER.

Correspondence.

NIETZSCHE'S WORKS IN ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If it is not too late to return to the questions of an endowed press and the publication of Nietzsche's works in English (dealt with in a leading article on January 18, and in a letter on behalf of the Macmillan Company on February 21), I might perhaps be allowed to add a few words with regard to the matter, especially as I have had something to do with the introduction of Nietzsche to the English-speaking world from the very first.

It is certainly a very great loss—a far greater loss than the lack of half a dozen average universities and a hundred Carnegie libraries—that Nietzsche's highly original works, which throw an entirely new light on morals and the philosophy of history, should not be readily accessible to all thinking minds in English-speaking countries. No doubt the cold reception which Nietzsche has met with in England and America has been in some degree owing to the unfavorable auspices under which his books have been presented to the public, but it is partly, also, owing to the character of the Anglo-Saxon peoples, who are less ripe for the best thought than the French. The fact that most of Nietzsche's voluminous writings are already accessible to French readers, and are eagerly purchased by them, confirms the truth of Nietzsche's estimate of France as the home of the highest culture, where people are most receptive of new modes of thought. It is unfortunate that many important Continental works never become accessible to English readers, owing to the unremunerative terms for good literature which obtain in the utilitarian and materialistic Anglo-Saxon race, whose great prophet is still the shallow and shortsighted Adam Smith of 'Wealth of Nations' fame, whose doctrines Carlyle and Ruskin so vigorously combated.

How are we to remedy the evil? Especially by introducing a sounder philosophy, which, by its far-reaching influence, is really the most practical of all matters. It is far more than a mere publishers' question. It has been a far more serious matter to those of us who, acting on arrangements made under Messrs. Henry and the Macmillans, through their editor, Dr. Tille, have prepared very careful translations of about half a dozen more volumes of Nietzsche's works, which we have not got published owing to the discontinuance of the issue of the works, and Messrs. Henry being obliged to give up business owing to their losses. The publication of a book of selections ('Nietzsche as Critic, Philosopher,' etc.) has been equally unfortunate and unremunerative, owing to the bankruptcy of Mr. Grant Richards. To be sure, the English issue of Nietzsche's works has not been too well managed, and the printing of the books in Germany after a final revision at the Nietzsche Archiv (where imperfect English was too often substituted when an alteration was made) has no doubt been prejudicial to the undertaking. These evils, however, will be avoided in future.

Mr. Williams, on behalf of the Macmillan Company, suggests that the public should help the cause by purchasing the works already published. Perhaps I might be permitted to suggest something more. The question of the difficulty of issuing Nietzsche's works in English was raised to illustrate the evils resulting from the lack of an endowed press. Why, then, should not steps be taken to remedy the evil in this particular case? To be sure, there are endowments for the purpose of publishing valuable works which cannot be profitably produced otherwise—*e. g.*, the Clarendon Press and the Royal Society of Literature; but neither the one nor the other will have anything to do with Nietzsche. His originality frightens the narrow-minded delegates and trustees who have the management of these institutions; and instead of helping, they only tantalize those who are in advance of them in the foremost files of time. Nietzsche's works, however are now sufficiently recognized as most worthy of publication. Here is a sufficiently long list of eminent men who vouch for their importance: S. Alexander, M.A., Professor of Philosophy, University of Manchester; William Archer, Esq.; S. H. Butcher, LL.D., Emeritus-Professor of Greek, Edinburgh University; H. Havelock Ellis, Esq.; Edward Garnett, Esq.; the Rev. John Glasse, D.D.; Edmund Gosse, LL.D., Librarian to the House of Lords; W. S. M'Cormick, LL.D., Secretary to the Carnegie Trust; W. Romaine Paterson, Esq. (Benjamin Swift); J. G. Robertson, Ph.D., Professor of German Lauguage and Literature, London University; G. Bernard Shaw, Esq.; and Arthur Symons, Esq. Let those who have the inclination and ability contribute to help the cause, and we shall soon have Nietzsche's principal works accessible in satisfactory English translations. In any case, we shall succeed in our aim in one way or another; but we shall do so sooner and better if we get the assistance we deserve, either with the coöperation of the Macmillan Company and Mr. Fisher Unwin, or without it. Mr. Unwin has shown great indifference about the matter, and is disinclined to take the next volume which should be published, namely, 'Beyond Good and Evil,' translated by Miss Zimmern: to substitute another volume for it would be doing a great injustice to Miss Zimmern, since none of her translations of Nietzsche have yet appeared after the lapse of a decade.

It does not, however, seem to be the function of those who prepare good books to endow publishers, especially if they be indifferent. If publishers themselves cannot provide the required endowment for good books, it seems best to adopt the plan suggested by Mr. Bernard Shaw, namely, to publish the works ourselves. Owing to the causes above mentioned, we now hesitate to appeal further to the public for funds with which to subsidize publishers. We will gladly coöperate with publishers, however, if they will meet us with reasonable terms; but, in any case, we are now going to help ourselves. A thoroughly revised edition of Part I. of Nietzsche's 'Zarathustra,' with introduction, summary, and explanatory notes, will soon be issued; it is, in fact, the first authorized translation of 'Zarathustra,' being authorized before the arrangements with Messrs. Henry and the Macmillans took place, when only Dr. W. A. Haussmann and myself were interested in translating Nietzsche.

By all means, however, let the public act on the suggestion of the Macmillan Company, and purchase Nietzsche's works from them; they are most valuable books, in spite of some imperfections in the translations. Their value is attested by the fact that the greatest English author and dramatist, Mr. Bernard Shaw, read the MS. of the book of Nietzsche extracts with approval, and afterwards carried it himself to the publisher's office, where he recommended that it should be issued.

Yours obediently,

THOMAS COMMON.

8 WHITEHOUSE TERRACE, CORSTORPHINE, SCOTLAND, March 17, 1906.

NEW LIGHT ON AMERICAN HISTORY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The ligneous English mind is not unique in its abnegation of reason when dealing with American subjects. My son, a student in a leading Continental university, writes me that a professor there, in a recent conversation, asserted to him in good faith that the decision to use English instead of German as the national language of the United States was carried by only one vote! He had seen this statement, so he said, in an historical work; unfortunately, he did not give his authority, nor the date of this remarkable transaction, whether before or after the adoption of the Constitution, or whether in convention or by joint vote of Congress. One would be curious to know whether the vote was taken by yea and nay, or *ja* and *nein*, and what method of coercion was to be imposed upon the minority; and if the Congressional debates would have been carried on and military orders issued in German, in case of another decision.

Whether some confused notion of the debates over teaching German in the public schools was floating in the professor's head, can only be guessed; perhaps his mind had been unhinged by reading the editorials on American affairs in the old *Saturday Review*, where statements not much less extraordinary were plentiful.

Truly yours, NEMUS.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS IN AMERICA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Lewis N. Dembitz's eloquent utterance in your issue of March 22, relative to the curse of railway accidents in the United States and the need of organized action on the part of the public to diminish their frequency, ought to elicit a loud response. It is a national disgrace that while the rest of the world is travelling in comparative safety, we Americans should be treated to a succession of unspeakable horrors, for which the railways and the travelling public, in its senseless eagerness for rapid locomotion (as Mr. Dembitz rightly says), are jointly responsible. The nature of the evil is rendered all the more appalling when we consider the ratio of accidents to the total number of

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passengers carried in the region west of the Mississippi, as compared with that in the eastern half of the country. The insecurity of travel on the Western roads is nothing short of monstrous. It is a shame that the double-tracking of the railways does not proceed faster in the face of the frequent head-on collisions.

Mr. Dembitz's scheme for the formation of an American association for putting an end to railway wrecks ought to meet with a wide welcome. Perhaps it will be found practicable to extend the scope of the association so as to include the problem of the protection of the lives and limbs of trainmen. How long are we to face complacently the spectacle of a million railway employees killed and maimed in the course of a single generation? This is what our statistics gives us.

Yours truly. L. H.

NEW YORK, March 25, 1906.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Amen! ought every patriotic American to say on hearing of Mr. Dembitz's suggestion in the *Nation* for the prevention of railroad horrors in this country. There is not a civilized Government on the face of the globe, outside of the United States, that would tolerate for a week such conditions as exist unchallenged on many American railroads from year to year. I know of one Western railroad whose average of derailments is three for every two days; and when the disaster occurs, the directors of such railroads shrug their shoulders and speak of the "acts of Providence."

To realize the enormity of our national culpability in this matter, it is necessary to know the facts concerning European railroads and to have an idea of what Europeans think of the management of ours. Let me quote a few figures. It will scarcely be believed that, in the whole of last year, only six passengers lost their lives on all English railroads from causes not due to personal carelessness. The number in the preceding year was twenty-five. These figures are taken from 'Whitaker's Almanac' for 1906. For the railways of the German Empire in the decade from 1891 to 1901, the number of passengers killed each year through accidents not due to personal carelessness was as follows: 8, 2, 4, 6, 8, 2, 25, 1, 2, 29. These figures are taken from Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon' (article *Eisenbahnunfälle*). Comment is unnecessary. GUSTAV POLLAK.

NEW YORK, March 25, 1906.

Notes.

The Syndics of the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press have arranged for a comprehensive 'History of English Literature,' in scale and plan comparable to the 'Cambridge Modern History.' Twelve royal octavo volumes of 400 pages each will be required for the period extending from Beowulf to the end of the Victorian Age. The editors are Dr. A. W. Ward, master of Peterhouse, and Mr. A. R. Waller.

We read in the *Athenæum* that Mr. Fisher Unwin will publish the story of Signora Mario's life and work, which was arranged for some years ago and is sufficiently completed.

A French translation of Prof. A. V. Dicey's 'Law and Opinion' has just finished printing, and will shortly appear.

Cardinal Rampolla, Secretary of State to the late Pope, has, since his retirement, devoted his leisure to historical studies, and has completed a hagiographico-historical work entitled 'Santa Melania e i suoi tempi.' The volume contains, in addition to a biography of this saint, detailed studies of Rome and life in that city during the fifth Christian century. The work is very comprehensive, and, according to the Vatican correspondent of the *Corriere della Sera*, a well-known French writer is already engaged in the preparation of an abridged edition for popular reading.

The interesting announcement is made that Fox, Duffield & Co. of this city have absorbed the Chicago publishing house of Herbert S. Stone & Co.

Among the spring announcements of the Johns Hopkins Press are 'The Finances of American Trade Unions,' by Aaron M. Takolski; 'The Apprentice and American Trade Unions,' by James M. Motley; 'Labor Federations in the United States,' by William Kirk; 'Trade Agreements in the United States,' by Frederick W. Hilbert, and 'Diplomatic Relations of the United States and Russia,' by John C. Hildt.

An 'Anthology of French Poetry, from the Time of Froissart to the Beginning of the Present Century,' compiled by Frederick Lawton, and 'Days with Walt Whitman,' by Edward Carpenter, are in the press of Macmillan Company.

James Pott & Co. will bring out next month 'Robert Louis Stevenson,' by G. K. Chesterton; 'The Foundations of the Republic,' two addresses by Edward Everett Hale; and 'A Sicilian Marriage,' by Douglas Sladen.

'Paul et Virginie,' in the French text of the original edition and with the illustrations recut, will form one of the Riverside Press luxurious limited editions of the present season, along with a new selection of 'Songs and Sonnets by Thomas Bailey Aldrich.'

That philanthropic yearbook, 'Burdett's Hospital and Charities,' comes to us punctually for 1906 (London: The Scientific Press). It is, as we have annually had occasion to remark, a mine of statistical information, a directory world-wide in its scope; and regularly it discusses most intelligently and helpfully the larger problems of its theme. The preface this year offers the idea of a Hospital City. Dr. Goldwater of New York, in chapter iii., succinctly describes hospital conditions in the United States.

Another recurring repository, equally without a rival, N. W. Ayer & Son's 'American Newspaper Annual' (Philadelphia), makes its prompt appearance for the present year. In its lists, census and gazetteer statistics, and maps, as well as the vigilant care to insure accuracy, it leaves nothing to be desired. Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands are included.

Major William Wood's animated and authoritative narrative of 'The Fight for Canada' was reviewed at length in these columns about a year and a half ago, from the English edition of Constable. Meanwhile the work has attained, on both sides of the water, to five editions, and that which we now receive from Little, Brown & Co., Boston, is marked "Definitive." If so, it is a very pretty ending, in bold type, with maps, portraits, and a bibliography.

About the same time, too, we noticed, but more briefly, Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu's 'Les États-Unis au XXe Siècle,' of which an authorized translation has just been made by H. Addington Bruce and published by Funk & Wagnalls Co. The work is largely statistical, and is attractively displayed.

One may infer the defects of Albert M. Hyamson's miniature 'Dictionary of Artists and Art Terms' (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton) by such a definition as "Baroque: Ornamentation in bad taste"; and by the omission of such terms as impast, patina, eclectic (in its specific Italian usage), dry point, and aquatint. Fresco painting is described as "Painting with mineral and earthy pigments on stucco"; silver point and sanguine are ignored. The book seems as badly done as possible in so brief a compass.

It would be easy to linger over Dr. J. McKeen Cattell's 'American Men of Science: A Biographical Dictionary' (New York: The Science Press). It is an attractive small quarto of 364 pages, in double columns, and is derived from sources which enable a popular writer like Dr. William Eleroy Curtis to figure here as a scientist. He owes the fact to his membership in certain learned societies, whose members have been bodily taken over without invidious discriminations. Those who live near the rose thus claim a place in the garden of roses. The biographies are compact, and have all been submitted for revision to the respective subjects, male and female. Dr. Cattell thus professes to give "a fairly complete survey of the scientific activity of [the United States] at a given period." He does more: he stars a thousand names as the leaders in American science, and he has chosen this group for future scientific study. We have observed but a single omission of moment (one proper to figure among the Thousand), and this may have come about through no fault of the editor. There is an appended necrology of our men of science who died 1903-05. This company has now been joined by Professor Langley.

In this connection we may mention a 'Bibliography of the Life and Works of Simon Newcomb,' compiled by R. C. Archibald, M.A., Ph.D., and reprinted (as it comes to us) from the Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada. It is accompanied by an excellent portrait. One cannot but be struck by the recorded range of this savant's interests as revealed in his writings.

'Structural and Field Geology' is the title of a recent work by Prof. James Geikie of Edinburgh (New York: Van Nostrand), illustrated with many plates and figures, and intended for "students of pure and applied science." Its chief headings are: Rock-forming Minerals and Rocks, Rock Structures, Eruptive Rocks, Ore Formations, Geological Surveying, Economic Problems, Soils, and Surface Features. The different chapters seem of unequal value, some being much more elaborated than others. The student who is competent to utilize the explanations of ore formations in his field work can hardly be in need of the elementary suggestions given in the pages on field

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equipment. One who can appreciate the considerable detail of the chapters on minerals and rocks, should have more information regarding the field problems of glacial deposits. References to American examples are not infrequent, but the bulk of the illustrations are from Great Britain, where the book will naturally be more useful to the student than with us.

Two useful summaries of South African geology made their appearance last year as if in connection with the visit of the British Association to the South African colonies. One, entitled 'The Geology of South Africa,' is by Messrs. Hatch and Corstorphine (Macmillan), and gives a general survey of all the southern colonies; the other, 'An Introduction to the Geology of Cape Colony,' is by Mr. A. W. Rogers (Longmans), and is limited to the colony of which the author is the official geologist. Both books are well prepared and well illustrated. The geological maps in particular serve as ready guides to the contents of the text. The manual by Hatch and Corstorphine gives an excellent account of the ancient rocks of the interior highland, among which the gold-bearing formations of the Rand are of especial interest; that by Rogers tells with more detail of the folded mountain ranges along the southern border of the continent. Both volumes give good summaries of the Dwyka glacial formation, of Permian date, and of extraordinary origin inasmuch as the ice sheet by which it was spread out accumulated in latitude 25° or 26° and moved southward, from the region of the equator towards the region of the pole.

Matthew Arnold used to tell a story of a naïve parson who, desiring to show an intelligent interest, asked Wordsworth whether he had written anything besides his 'Guide to the Lakes.' The anecdote illustrates the popularity of this essay, which has been edited this year by Mr. de Sélincourt (Henry Frowde). The reprint of 1906 represents the fifth edition of 1835, Wordsworth's final text of a work that originally appeared as an Introduction to 'Select Views in Cumberland,' by "a Mr. Wilkinson, a clergyman," published in 1810. Wordsworth soon disentangled his own from Mr. Wilkinson's ponderous work. He desired to "give a model of the manner in which topographical descriptions ought to be executed"; and when he republished the essay in 1820, with the Duddon Sonnets, he intended it to illustrate the poems. This is a guide-book that can never become antiquated, partly because it contains much autobiography interesting to Wordsworthians, partly because of its admirable prose style and a sympathy and intimacy with the Lake country which Ruskin himself never surpassed. The present reprint is got up in a most attractive little volume, light in the hand, furnished with a map and useful notes; and, as far as the beauties of scenery are concerned, apart from the question of the trains and hotels of to-day, is the best possible companion of the Lake tourist.

Those admirers of Jane Austen for whom no detail of the circumstances of her life can be superfluous, will find matter of interest in J. C. and E. C. Hubback's 'Jane Austen and her Sailor Brothers' (John Lane). They were both captains in the British navy during the Napoleonic period, and the extracts from their logs and letters here presented, though of no particular importance, give occasional glimpses of conditions at the time of the great war that are not without interest. The authors attempt to draw a parallel between some passages in Jane Austen's novels and the actual experiences of her brothers at sea.

Under the title of 'Bibliography of Printing in America,' Mr. George T. Watkins has compiled a list of about 400 titles of "books, pamphlets, and some articles in magazines relating to the history of printing in the New World." The latter term is used advisedly, as Mr. Watkins's list includes many interesting and unfamiliar Spanish titles on Mexican and South American printing. Several works relating to the history and bibliography of the press in the Philippines are also included. Useful notes are appended to many of the entries. While the list makes no pretension to absolute completeness, it is of considerable value; and Mr. Watkins—who, by the way, is a printer in the office of the Boston *Globe*—deserves hearty praise for his undertaking. Three hundred copies are printed and may be had of the compiler, whose address (20 Fenno Street, Roxbury, Mass.) we are glad to give.

Tryon County, New York, had long been under the sway of Sir William Johnson when the Revolution encouraged an element of opposition. The 'Minutes of the Committee of Safety,' with an introduction by J. Howard Hanson and notes by Samuel L. Frey, tell the story of this opposition in 1774-1775. Johnson was not the most feared by these "good people," but his allies, the Indians, whom he countenanced and to whom he supplied ammunition. To prevent an outbreak, appeal was made to Johnson, but the son, Guy Johnson, is charged with making "malevolent insinuations to the Indians of our American cause." So the committee had direct communications with the Indians, organized a militia, harassed the Tories, sat as a court of justice, and sent delegates to the Provincial Congress. The Johnsons were irreconcilable, and remained loyal to the King, eventually losing their estates and influence. The Indians were hostile, and, as was proved later, could inflict terrible suffering on the community. The record ends abruptly, some pages being lost; and many of the papers issuing from the committee were not spread upon the minutes, but were merely mentioned. Such as it is, this fragment presents a very good picture of conditions in the country at that time, and the notes and illustrations add to its value. The manner of printing is excellent. Dodd, Mead & Co. are the publishers.

One of the most successful French novels of recent years is Pierre de Coulevain's 'Ève Victorieuse.' It is an exceptionally clever piece of work, and of special interest to American readers in that the author (or rather authoress, for Coulevain is a nom de plume), has chosen a New Yorker for her heroine. Although occasionally open to criticism when she deals with such details of American life as Colonial Dames and Harvard athletics, yet in the broader questions, and especially in her attempt at a comparative psychology of her French, Italian, and American characters, she shows much real observation. The American heroine and the cause of virtue come out equally triumphant in the end.

The French side of the thorny question which the diplomats are trying to solve at Algeciras is presented to the public by M. Victor Bérard in 'L'Affaire Marocaine' (Paris: Colin). The author is as dispassionate as might be expected under the circumstances, and places before the reader numerous extracts from the recently published official dispatches. The point at issue between Germany and France is too well known to require restatement here, but it may be remarked that the author brings out in a very interesting manner the uncertainty of the policy of France towards Morocco of recent years, and leaves the reader somewhat skeptical as to whether its latest form would, if sanctioned by the Conference, be consistently adhered to. This latest form represents undoubtedly the least objectionable method of securing a colonial empire—the policy of peaceful penetration. The book reveals no diplomatic secrets and throws no new light on the causes of Germany's course of action. It further leaves French policy as open as heretofore to the initial reproach of not having made sufficient allowance for Germany's forward policy of commercial expansion and for the international character of the accord on Morocco established by the Conference of Madrid in 1880.

Morocco is the subject of the leading article in the *National Geographic Magazine* for March. Mr. Ion Perdicaris, after a brief sketch of its history and inhabitants, gives an entertaining account of his capture in 1904 by the insurgent chief Raisuli. This man, through a natural dignity and grace, attracted and interested him so much that he characterizes him as the most gentle and kindly of brigands imaginable, and adds that he was idolized by his wild tribesmen. The only reference to the present conference at Algeciras and the events which led up to it, is the remark that it may be the prelude to the closing act in the drama of Moorish independence. The reproductions of photographs of Tangier and the natives are numerous and excellent. Dr. Alexander Graham Bell's plea for the adoption of the metric system, made before the Committee on Coinage, Weights and Measures, contains a practical argument in its favor from his experience in his own laboratory. In carrying on his experiments with man-lifting kites, the calculations proved to be so laborious that he found it simpler to translate the proposed measurements into metrical terms, and then work out the solution on the metrical plan. No change was required in the machinery and tools employed, but a set of metrical weights and measures was procured to which the workmen readily accustomed themselves, and he says that they liked the new system.

The definitive arrangements for the celebration, in both Leyden and Amsterdam, of the tercentenary of the birth of Rembrandt van Rijn, as set forth in letters and missives in Dutch and English, look to permanent as well as temporary memorials. The house in the Jews' Broad Street in Amsterdam has been purchased by the municipality. It will be restored, and, as far as possible, refurnished in conformity with its internal conditions during the life of

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Saskia, and of the time between the painting of "The Anatomy Lesson" and the "Night Watch." No alterations will be made on the front of the building without the sanction of the Rembrandt Society of Amsterdam. Two editions of the Bible, or rather of those parts of the Scriptures which were especially illustrated by Rembrandt's pencil, needle, or brush, and containing two hundred pictures, of a size and form to allow an almost full-size reproduction of the "Hundred Guilders Print," will be prepared. The text, in both the States-General Dutch version and the Latin Vulgate, will be compiled by Dr. Hofstede De Groot and published by Scheltema & Holtema of Amsterdam. Of necessity, these editions will be high priced. Rembrandt's biography in outline (pp. 160), written by the Dutch artist Jan Veth, and illustrated, will be issued at a moderate price. Besides this threefold commemoration, one tablet will be placed on the walls of the house in the Rosengracht where Rembrandt died, and another on his tomb in the Wester Kerk. There will be a *soirée artistique* at the Amsterdam Theatre on Monday, July 16, and the pictured walls of the Rijks Museum will be illuminated by searchlight. In harmony with the copious medallic history of the Netherlands, a medal will be struck in remembrance of the Rembrandt Day of July 15, 1906, on which day, also, the formal opening of the Rembrandt Annex to the Rijks, or National, Museum will take place. By recommendation of the Queen, the "Night Watch" will be placed in a spacious, imposing, but plainly decorated room, calling to mind by character and tone the "Doelens" and "Governors" rooms of Rembrandt's time, and thus in harmony with the picture, so that the visitor may "be given the opportunity of devoting his whole attention to the painting, without the chance of being distracted from its contemplation by disturbing factors." In the same annex the picture of the "Syndics of the Cloth Hall," and in another some of the masterpieces of Rembrandt worthy of the place of honor, will be hung.

An important informal convention recently met at the call of the Prussian Cultus Minister in Berlin, for the purpose of suggesting to the Government the proper steps to be taken in the reorganization of the secondary schools for girls. It may prove a counterpart to the famous conference of 1900, which resulted in placing the scientific preparatory schools for boys on a level with the classical in admitting the graduates to the universities. The recent conference consisted of both male and female representatives in about equal parts. The universities and the church as well as the schools were represented. As a result of these deliberations, it was decided to recommend to the Government a new type of higher schools for girls, namely, the girls' lyceum, Mädchenlyceum, which is to be followed by a higher school called the Mädchenoberlyceum. The former is to cover ten years, and its course is substantially to be that of a Latin *Real*-school, and will accordingly give prominence to the natural sciences and to mathematics. The higher grade is to cover a four years' course, and to have for its special object preparation for the university, so that a full fourteen years' course for girls is to lead up to the latter. These proposals met the approval of such men as Professors Harnack and Seeberg and the leading court preacher, Dryander. It is expected, says the *Alte Glaube* of Leipzig, that the Government will in substance adopt these far-reaching innovations.

Ex-President Cleveland's sixty-ninth birthday, just past, has been commemorated by Mr. Jacques Reich in an etched portrait on the large scale of the series of American statesmen which this artist has now for several years steadily produced, and in a manner to challenge comparison with the best. In the present instance, the Cleveland of the print is a somewhat younger man than the one entering on his seventieth year. All the substantial qualities, however, of the well-known face and head—the weight, the seriousness, the conscientiousness—are here caught with great verisimilitude, and the portrait must appeal to Mr. Cleveland's admirers, as it is said to give satisfaction to himself, evidenced by his signing a small number of proofs. In point of technique, it maintains the etcher's high level. Mr. Reich's address is No. 2 West Fourteenth Street, New York.

—The town of Lincoln, Mass., an early patchwork derived from the territory of Concord, Lexington, and Weston, and all whose streams flow outward, somehow drew in population against the current, and is now one of Boston's most charming suburbs. On April 23, 1904, it celebrated the 150th anniversary of its incorporation, and the proceedings have just been generously published in a beautifully illustrated volume. Mr. Charles Francis Adams, a recent townsman, supplied the oration, "A Milestone Planted," much of it along the lines of his latest Weymouth address, but conspicuously original in an elaborate review of prehistoric glacial conditions, which had shaped not only the face of the land, but the roads, the building sites, and the common life of the future population. Mr. Adams might have remarked further on the adaptability of all highly glaciated and morainic regions for suburban villas. After the building of the Fitchburg Railroad the town succumbed to Western competition in all its staple products except timber, but maintained itself by truck farming. "As compared with a century ago, . . . Lincoln is more populous, more temperate, and more moral." In March, 1904, the town-meeting unanimously "directed its clerk to cast one ballot for the order prohibiting during the year all sales of spirits within Lincoln's limits." Mr. Adams finds its town government typically "in a shape approaching perfection," whereas the decay of that form had been among his motives for quitting Quincy. The appended letters and plain speeches read or spoken at the succeeding banquet justify this view. Mr. Adams professed to be addressing posterity, and we venture to suggest that he has unconsciously planted a milestone in a matter of speech—we mean in his uncertain use of *shall* and *will*. Will any of the town celebrants of 1954 or 2004 remark this in rereading his oration? We very much doubt.

—As many of our readers know, Professor Oman of Oxford is editing a coöperative history of England in six volumes, and we now bring together for brief notice the two most recent contributions to this series (Putnams). In 'England under the Normans and Angevins,' Mr. H. W. C. Davis of Balliol College covers the period which lies between the Battle of Hastings and the death of Henry III. In 'England under the Tudors,' Mr. Arthur D. Innes employs a title which explains itself without special definition of dates. Both works represent a valiant endeavor to coördinate the chief results of intensive research without disclosing the painfulness of the process whereby those results have been gained. For purposes of lucid statement it is always well to invest one's subject with a certain unity, and Mr. Davis seeks to focus his volume at a given point by dwelling on the inventive and experimental features of his era as contrasted with the spirit of consolidation which marked the age of the three Edwards. But, behind all the creative efforts of the two centuries in question, one essential fact may be discerned. "It is not," says Mr. Davis, "a duel between two races, as Thierry asks us to believe. It is much rather a struggle of native against foreign ambitions and ideas; a struggle of which the influence is apparent in every class and almost every individual." Alike to Crown, Baronage, Church, and People, opposing ideals present themselves during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries—forces of nearly equal strength fighting for the control of great institutions. The Crown, divided between continental ambitions and its desire to build up an empire of the British Isles, co-exists with a Baronage which hesitates between the rival policies of personal or collective aggrandizement, and a Church which is sometimes national and sometimes papal in its aspirations. Upon these warring tendencies of the early Angevin age Mr. Davis lays stress, but without failing to show how by 1272 all of the main issues had been provisionally settled. "The policy of the Church and Baronage is stereotyped; De Montfort has given a close and consistent form to the aspirations of the masses; the Crown has reluctantly accepted an insular policy and the idea of a limited prerogative. And, as a result, England has entered upon the truly English phase of her development." From such bare generalities as the foregoing the reader may be enabled to form some preliminary idea of the way in which Mr. Davis approaches the main problems of English politics during the Norman and early Angevin periods. We must supplement a statement necessarily concise by saying that neither social nor economic history is excluded from the author's survey, while space is even found for the leading facts in the progress of culture. Mr. Davis is an excellent writer, and keeps at all points in touch with first-hand authorities.

—Mr. Innes's book is to a large extent the record of the lay spirit at work in transforming the educational system, the religious institutions, and the national activities of England during the era of Renaissance and Reformation. To be sure, the leading ministers of the Crown during the first forty years of the Tudor period were ecclesiastics, but, from the fall of Wolsey forward, the personnel of the official class undergoes a profound change. "The Cromwells," says Mr. Innes, "the Seymours, Dudleys, and Pagets, the Cecils and Wal-

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singhams and Bacons, the Russells, Sidneys, Raleighs and Careys, were of stocks that had hardly been heard of in Plantagenet times outside of their own localities." Amid the Erastian impulses of that day, the political reign of the great prelates passed away, and even in the Church itself the Act of Supremacy restricted the range of their practical powers. "The political influence of the Church," says Mr. Innes, "was reduced to comparative insignificance by the treatment of the whole hierarchy as if it were a branch and a rather subordinate branch of the civil administration; by the appropriation of its wealth to secular purposes, to the enrichment of individuals and of the royal treasury; and by the suppression of the monastic orders." The rise of lay lawyers through the dwindling of the ecclesiastical courts is a further sign of the times, while still another is the failure of the clergy in England to produce political leaders of real eminence. The whole Erastian motive, indeed, is developed in Mr. Innes's hands with much effect. At the same time he has formed a very different opinion of Thomas Cromwell from that which has recently been reached by Dr. Van Dyke. "Unpitying he lived, unpitied he died. Regardless of justice he had struck down each obstacle in the way of his policy; regardless of justice, he was in turn struck down. By his own standards he was judged; his end was the end he had compassed for More and Fisher. History has no more perfect example of Nemesis."

—Apart from his treatment of the theme to which we have alluded above, we have found in Mr. Innes's character sketches the most interesting feature of his volume. For this kind of writing he evidently has a fondness, and few of his leading personages are dismissed with an adjective or a phrase. Among all the people of the sixteenth century, Mary Tudor furnishes him with the most pathetic spectacle. "Royally courageous, loyal and straightforward; to her personal enemies almost magnanimous; to the poor and afflicted, pitiful; loving her country passionately; she was blind to the forces at work in the world, obsessed with the idea of one supreme duty, and she set herself, as she deemed, to do battle with Antichrist by the only methods she knew, though they were alien to her natural disposition, facing hatred and obloquy. She whose life was one long martyrdom, for conscience' sake offered up a whole holocaust of martyrs; she who thirsted for love, died clothed with a nation's hate. Where in all history is a tragedy more piteous than that of Mary Tudor?" It may appear invidious to institute a comparison between two books each of which is admirable in design and workmanship, but, while Mr. Innes's volume is quite adequate to the purposes of the series, we have found it somewhat less carefully wrought than Mr. Davis's account of English life under the Normans and Angevins.

—The uninitiated will not realize the amount of special and valuable information contained in Anna R. Sheldon's 'Pistoia' (Brentano's). Not only is it one of the very best guide-books we have ever seen, but it is also eminently readable. Indeed, it would be difficult to praise it too highly; and it is just because it is so exceedingly good that we are tempted to indicate what we consider the one weak point of the book. If only a few more pages were devoted to the history of the town—half a dozen, written in the proper spirit, would suffice—this little volume would be as welcome in the study as it undoubtedly will be in the pocket of the tourist. As it stands, the stay-at-home reader is given no key which may enable him to unlock Pistoia's heart, while the ordinary tourist will hardly even suspect what a wonderful history Pistoia has. He will not be put upon inquiry; and he may imagine that when he has read the history of Florence, he has read that of Pistoia too—a notion not likely to be dissipated by the extensive use which Miss Sheldon has made of F. A. Hyett's 'Florence: Her History and Art.' Mr. Hyett is the only authority quoted by her in her meagre historical sketch (pages 16-19); on pages 52-53 she drags in a long paragraph from his work, almost *à propos de bottes*, touching the office of *Podestà* in Florence, while the only actual mistake which we have found in the whole book seems to be drawn from the same source. On page 17 we are told that the Florentine *carroccio* "first appears" in the war of 1228; and Mr. Hyett is quoted. Now, in the 'Gesta Florentinorum' of Sanzanome we find mention made of the *carroccio* as early as 1170 ("victorioso preeunte carroccio"), and again, at the siege of Montalto, in 1207. Of course, the matter is one of no importance. In a book dealing with Pistoia, we do not want to read about the Florentine *podestà* or the Florentine *carroccio*. Will not Miss Sheldon excise such superfluities, and, in a second edition, tell us something which concerns us more nearly? What of the two marble arms on the tower above the fortress of Carmignano, with hands which *faceano le fiche a Firenze?* What of the taking and retaking of Serravalle (the name alone is eloquent)? What of those old feuds between the Panciatichi and the Cancellieri, which wasted not only all Pistoia, but also the *contado* and the *montagna?* So competent an Italian scholar as Miss Sheldon is, could tell us of these things if she would. For the rest, the book is well illustrated and adequately indexed. It is charmingly bound in flexible leather, and will fit comfortably into any pocket.

—The seventeenth volume of the 'Annales du Musée Guimet' (Paris: Ernest Leroux) contains five lectures delivered at the Musée Guimet by Émile Guimet on "The Vocal Statue of Memnon," "The Recent Archæological Discoveries in Egypt," "The Museums of Greece," "The Antiquities of Syria and Palestine," and "The Chinese Drama." The sub-title, "Bibliothèque de Vulgarisation," indicates that these lectures are intended to interest the general public rather than specialists, and this fact may account for the somewhat overdone humor of the first lecture, in which the origin of the name Memnon, applied to the statue of Amenophis III. at Thebes, the explanation of the sound emitted by the statue when the warmth of the day succeeded to the chill of the night, and the growth of the cult of the statue in Roman times, are cleverly worked up for the amusement of a popular audience. The second lecture deals chiefly with the discoveries made by M. Amélineau at Abydos, which relate to very early times, and those of M. Gayet at Antinoë, among which the most interesting are, perhaps, the remains of silks and other stuffs, with elaborate and beautiful patterns woven in them, which belong to Byzantine or Sassanide times. The intermediate periods are, however, not altogether neglected. This lecture, like the two that follow it, was illustrated with stereopticon slides, which are catalogued, with brief explanations and a few illustrations. The lecture on the museums of Greece is a rather superficial description of the remains of ancient art to be seen in various parts of the kingdom of Hellas, with especial attention to Delphi, because that site was excavated by Frenchmen. The comparison of the work done at Delphi with that performed by the Germans at Olympia is made, with some slight disregard for the facts, to appeal to the prejudices of a French audience. The greater part of the fourth lecture is devoted to the antiquities of Asia Minor, especially Ephesus, Miletus, Priene, Pergamon, and Tralles, followed by a comparatively brief treatment of Jerusalem and Baalbek. The second, third, and fourth lectures are published from a stenographer's copy. This accounts for some peculiar mistakes, especially in proper names, such as Eberday and Wielberg for Heberdey and Wilberg. In general, the author seems to be more familiar with Egyptian than with Greek matters. The fifth lecture is perhaps the most interesting part of the book, as it gives a brief sketch of the development of the drama in China, with copious extracts from some of the curious plays of the thirteenth century. On the whole, the volume, though not important, may be recommended to those who wish to be amused, and at the same time to acquire a little superficial information on the subjects treated.

HOLMAN HUNT'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY.—I.

Pre-Raphaelitism and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood. By W. Holman Hunt, O.M., D.C.L. With 40 Photogravure plates and other illustrations. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

Those who read through to the end the two ample volumes containing the life of Holman Hunt and the history of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, will not be inclined to regard art as a "light and irresponsible pursuit"—an idea very generally prevalent, we are told, in latter eighteenth-century days, and even early in the nineteenth century among people who knew but little of artists or of the years of hard work and strenuous endeavor which go to their making; for they were not then as sought after in general society as now. Holman Hunt had unusual difficulties to overcome in order to obtain the necessary training in his early years. His parents, while recognizing his strong natural bent towards art, had the greatest objection to his following a career which seemed both unremunerative and fraught with perils and uncertainties. His was a constant struggle with difficulties of every kind. His varied experiences accordingly offered superabundant material for a good book, and his narrative, although quite unnecessarily diffuse, is not devoid at times of a saving sense

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of humor. It is natural enough that an aged man gifted with a wonderful memory should believe that all he can tell of the past is worth hearing; and we are bound to admit that the limitation of what is really significant in biography is rarely understood. Nor should we look for this self-restraint from a man as singularly endowed with self-esteem as our present autobiographer. But what much interferes with the value of the work and the pleasure of the reader is, that Holman Hunt, from the moment he treats of the formation of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood, is entirely preoccupied with a contention and a grievance, which, like the grain of mustard seed mentioned in Scripture, takes quite surprising proportions, for one can never remain unconscious of the bitterness it occasions in his memories of fellow-workers. A contention may occupy a column in a newspaper, or at most be allowed to ventilate itself in a magazine article or a pamphlet, but it is quite unseemly—almost indecent—to find it bristling up continually through two lengthy and handsomely illustrated volumes.

Hunt was born in 1827. When about four years old, his home being then in the suburbs, he began to show a decided inclination for drawing, spending the intervals of noisy play in copying with a pencil any pictures he happened to see, or in representing what he knew or imagined. The child was taken on special occasions to his father's warehouse in Dyer's Court, Aldermanbury, to see the Lord Mayor's show, Bartholomew Fair, or other sights, and was often allowed to accompany the porter, who, with a knot on his head, carried a formidable pile of goods around according to approved custom. When only seven, he went with his father to the studio of an artist who was painting a landscape for him, besides being at work on a large canvas representing the burning of the Houses of Parliament. The boy was so fascinated by the process of oil painting that he begged to be allowed to remain and look on while the artist painted. This was permitted if he liked to stand on the stairs and watch through a little window they opened for the occasion. He stood in rapt attention till dark, watching the flame being spread around the buildings on the canvas, and hailing joyfully the grinding of fresh vermilion and chrome by the painter in preparation for fresh outbursts of fire. Great was his surprise when the artist turned from this exciting work to partake with his children of a substantial meal of tea and bread and butter prepared by his wife. This was the boy's first experience of studio life, with its frequent changes from the ideal to the stern realities of life; it left a pleasing remembrance in his mind, and, when questioned by his father at the age of twelve as to the profession he meant to follow, the boy declared he was determined to become a painter.

This decided intention was a great disappointment, though nothing was said at the time; but Holman Hunt soon learned from his mother that he was to leave school and begin work in a warehouse in the city. This meant no leisure for drawing, inasmuch as the distributing of invoices for goods took up eleven hours a day, and ensured promotion to a desk only after two years' work. In desperation at this outlook, hearing of a vacant post as copying clerk to an estate agent, the boy applied for it, and, having shown himself capable, was engaged on trial. Mr. Hunt was surprised at his son's having taken this independent step, but, after an interview with Mr. James, his employer, consented to the engagement. This proved a piece of good luck for young Hunt's artistic proclivities, for Mr. James was himself a lover of art, and when he by chance discovered his young assistant's talent for drawing, he revealed his own proficiency in painting landscapes in oil, and invited him to make use of his materials, which he subsequently ceded to him, teaching him how to buy crude pigments, grind and mix them with oil, and put them into bladders for use. Soon after, he was permitted to practise drawing at a mechanics' institute in the evenings, and was taken one Sunday by his father to see John Varley, the professor of watercolor landscape and "Zodiacal Physiognomy," who received the young art aspirant with encouraging cordiality, lending him drawings to copy, and his book on the occult laws, and expressing the hope that he might become as great an artist as his former pupil of the same name (William Hunt, the watercolor painter).

After this encouragement from Varley young Hunt was allowed to spend his salary on weekly lessons from a city portrait painter named Rogers, from whom he acquired a boldness of execution and other habits he had much trouble later on in eradicating. Mr. James, when he retired from business of his own accord, sought to persuade Hunt's father to allow his son to become a painter; but his efforts in this direction succeeded only in obtaining for the boy a few weeks of liberty. The first use he put his spare time to was to visit the National Gallery to see the famous works of old masters about which he had read. His account of his first visit is astonishing; he tells how he passed by the masterpieces of Italian art, anxiously searching for noteworthy pictures, and he had to be led up to them by the custodian; even then the "Bacchus and Ariadne" of Titian failed to excite his enthusiasm. But to suit the taste of the dilettante of that time, when bright coloring was disliked, the dealers had given the old masters a brown coating with tobacco decoction and other washes. When they were cleaned six years later and appeared in their pristine richness of color, the newspapers raised the outcry that they had been ruined.

His father, again excited by his objection to the career of an artist, sought to place Holman in a strict house of business, but he settled the matter for himself and entered the London agency of Richard Cobden's Manchester business. In this office unexpected opportunities in favor of art soon became manifest. His room-mate was a pattern designer. This turned his attention to ornamental design, with the conviction of its being essential in artistic education. He continued his evening lessons with the portrait painter, and on Sundays in the summer time he tried to paint landscapes from nature; but his attempts to produce color as he saw it were not successful. When he showed them to his master, he was told that nature required to be treated *in a key*, and that no one with a true eye for color would paint ivy green and grass greener as it appears. Constable was mentioned as a wrong-headed person who had done this and failed, and an example of Mr. Rogers's own work was shown him in which, according to the favorite convention, green was turned into soft yellows and rich browns, the result being very unlike anything seen in nature. Four monotonous years passed thus of daily routine in the office when, during the absence of his master, Hunt, having but little to do, invited an old Jewess, who sold oranges in warehouse offices, to sit for him. She did so willingly, bargaining for a copy of her portrait, and although the sittings were brief and often interrupted, the likeness was soon recognizable. It was pinned up on the wall to dry when his master returned. He was much struck by the portrait of old Hannah with the basket on her head and the oranges in her hand, as she appeared in life. He rushed out to call in friends to see the work, which was much admired and talked of, so that its fame reached the ears of the elder Hunt, whose displeasure seems to have been great when he learned its authorship. He complained to his son's employers of their not giving him sufficient work, and threatened to place him elsewhere if his time was not filled. Holman Hunt very justly felt that his only chance of success as an artist would be lost if he delayed any longer, by giving way to parental authority. While acknowledging the risk, he openly declared his intention of studying art seriously, and taking his life into his own hands. He gave up his place in the office, and took a room in the city, in which to paint the portraits which had been commissioned him on the strength of old Hannah's likeness. He also began to draw from the antique in the British Museum, and sent in drawings for a probationership at the Royal Academy schools.

LEE'S SHAKSPERE FACSIMILES.

Shakespeare's Poems and Pericles. Collotype Facsimile Reproduction, with Introductions by Sydney Lee. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1905.

Among the many eminent services which Mr. Sydney Lee has performed in the cause of Shaksperean scholarship, it is questionable whether any will be rewarded with higher appreciation than the present volume. Regarded merely as a specimen of typography, the book is one of rare beauty—a real delight to the eye. The facsimiles are executed with the utmost fidelity, and the student who possesses them is in a position to form as accurate a judgment on all questions that require an exact knowledge of the texts as if he had the practically inaccessible original editions before him. Accordingly, to say nothing of those who love a beautiful book for its own sake, the work forms an addition to the resources of the textual critic and the student of Shakspere's language which will be henceforth indispensable.

In regard to the critical introductions which accompany each of the facsimiles, it is evident that no one living was so well qualified to supply these as Mr. Lee; for in the matters that concern the practical side of authorship, the relations of writers

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to publishers, and generally the conditions under which the works of authors (more particularly Shakspere) found their way to the press in the latter years of the sixteenth century and the early years of the seventeenth, Mr. Lee had already performed a service which is analogous to that of Mr. Fleay in the history of the Elizabethan stage, although his industry is controlled by an infinitely sounder judgment. Whether we accept or not Mr. Lee's main contention with respect to the problem of the Sonnets, unquestionably among the benefits which the world owes to his devotion to that subject is the light which he has shed on just such conditions as we have mentioned above. The preparation of his admirable introduction to the Clarendon Press facsimile reproduction of the First Folio edition of Shakspere's Plays, to which the present work forms a supplement (completing the facsimile reproduction of the original editions of all of Shakspere's works), led him still further into studies of this nature, not to mention those which are more strictly bibliographical, so that he approached the task which is represented by this volume with an unequalled mastery of the practical side of his subject, as well as of that other side which more immediately concerns the critic and historian of literature.

Considering more closely the results of Mr. Lee's investigations presented in this volume, we are struck, first of all, with his extremely interesting discussion of the sources of "Venus and Adonis." It is rather remarkable that so promising a theme should have received so little attention from the dispensers of subjects for dissertations in the universities of Germany and America. Mr. Lee, however, has brought to the discussion a knowledge of the literature of the sixteenth century in the different European countries which no mere apprentice in scholarship could be expected to command, so that it is, on the whole, fortunate, perhaps, that the study of "Venus and Adonis" in this important aspect has been comparatively neglected in those quarters. Our editor has traced the treatment of the legend in literature from the Greek poets of Sicily down to Shakspere's poem. It is especially his object, however, to investigate in the fullest manner the various versions of the story—Italian, French, English, and even Spanish—in the literature of the Renaissance, since it was in the atmosphere of these versions that Shakspere's "Venus and Adonis" came into existence. Mr. Lee, as it seems to us, has accomplished this very happily, for even where one may differ with him as to Shakspere's dependence on earlier works, as in the case of the Italian poems of Dolce and Tarchagnota, the parallels have undoubtedly a very great interest. Probably no student of Shakspere who has read the passages in ancient literature which deal with this legend, has failed to be struck with the fundamental difference in the conception of the relations of Venus and Adonis as compared with that with which Shakspere has made us so familiar. Neither the Greek poets nor Ovid give any ground for supposing that Adonis does not return the love of Venus; and the same is true of most of the treatments of the theme in the literature of the early sixteenth century. On the other hand, from the first it would appear that the beautiful youth was not so much the slave of love as to surrender everything for the sake of this passion, and he tears himself from the arms of the Queen of Love to give himself up to the fatal delights of the chase. This feature of the story seems to have formed the starting-point of the conception of the coyness of Adonis, which, through the influence of Shakspere's poem, has practically eclipsed the original conception; and the lover who, in the beginning, is simply not wholly the slave of passion, becomes in the course of the development of the legend positively averse to the embraces of the goddess. It was evidently this germ of piquancy which, so to speak, made the fortunes of the story in modern times, much in the same way that the infidelity of Cressida had made the fortunes of another famous story in the Middle Ages. Practically every work of fiction put forth, whether in verse or prose, offered a story of love requited, but here was an opportunity for a novel kind of interest without any sacrifice in the exhibition of passion—nay, with a situation which called for an even more intense exhibition of passion.

The new development of the story appears dimly before Shakspere in two lyrics of Robert Greene—more pronouncedly in the second of these, the exquisite appeal of Venus in "Never Too Late" (1590) with the refrain, "N'oserez-vous, mon bel, mon bel, N'oserez-vous, mon bel ami"; and again in Marlowe's "Hero and Leander" (published in 1598 after Marlowe's death, but earlier in composition than Shakspere's poem), where, as Mr. Lee says, in his translation of Musæus, the poet "went out of his obvious path in order to bring Adonis's coldness into signal relief." It seems to us that, even after Mr. Lee's discussion, however, there is room for an effort to trace more precisely the growth of the conception of the coldness of Adonis in European literature before Shakspere's "Venus and Adonis." That conception evidently existed, although imperfectly developed, before Shakspere took up his pen, but it is not clear from Mr. Lee's introduction exactly when it first appeared. The employment of the motive by Marino, who surely did not know Shakspere, proves the existence of an independent Italian tradition to that effect. We would suggest in this connection that it would be also worth while taking into account the treatment of the subject in the paintings of the Renaissance—witness the well-known picture by Titian in the National Gallery, which antedates the publication of some of the Italian poems cited by Mr. Lee—only one would encounter here the difficulty, perhaps, of deciding whether the gesture of the goddess in detaining the beautiful youth was due to an effort to overcome his amorous reluctance, or simply to hold him back from the fatal boar-hunt. In Shakspere, however, at any rate, there is no hesitation in the conception. It is the coyness of Adonis that constitutes the sole *motif* of his poem. In explanation of the boldness with which this conception is here developed, Mr. Lee makes the suggestion of certain extraneous influences which seem to have determined Shakspere in his treatment of the theme. This is the most notable part, perhaps, of Mr. Lee's introduction to "Venus and Adonis" and, it appears to us, must compel general acceptance. As Mr. Lee points out, Ovid's "Metamorphoses," which Shakspere undoubtedly used as a source of his poem (probably in its original form as well as in Golding's translation), contained not only the story of Venus and Adonis, in which the latter is "mildly responsive to Venus's embraces," but another story in which a beautiful nymph makes vehement suit to a reluctant youth—the story of Salmacis and Hermaphroditus; to say nothing of the account of the Calydonian boar-hunt, which, as Mr. Lee makes evident by parallels, obviously furnished hints (through Golding's translation) for the boar-hunt in Shakspere's poem. But the influence of Ovid's "Metamorphoses" as a source of "Venus and Adonis," curiously enough, reached Shakspere through still another channel, viz., the "Glaucus and Scilla" (1589) of Thomas Lodge. The story of this poem came likewise from Ovid, but it had been radically changed by Lodge, and, in the form in which he presents it, bears a strong resemblance to the tale of Salmacis and Hermaphroditus. This poem, which is written in the same metre as "Venus and Adonis," must be reckoned indisputably among the works which influenced Shakspere. Finally, in the consideration of this question we should not forget the influence (which, of course, escapes determination) of oral discussion of such subjects which must have taken place in the literary circle to which Shakspere belonged.

Mr. Lee's introduction to "The Rape of Lucrece" is not so fruitful of novel results as his introduction to "Venus and Adonis." In the twenty-second volume of *Anglia*, Dr. Wilhelm Ewig had already treated with great thoroughness, along with other questions pertaining to "The Rape of Lucrece," the sources of the poem. For instance, the interesting connection of "Lucrece" with Daniel's "Complaint of Rosamond"—which seems to have suggested to Shakspere even the use of the seven-line stanza in which this poem, unlike the "Venus and Adonis," is composed—is fully dealt with there. Mr. Lee, however, gives us a complete review of the treatment of this famous story in European literature down to the publication of "Lucrece," remarking that Shakspere's poem, generally speaking, has a closer affinity with Ovid's version (in the "Fasti") than with that of any other predecessor. "Like Ovid, Shakspere delights in pictorial imagery, and occasionally in 'Lucrece' he appears to borrow Ovid's own illustrations." It is interesting to observe that Mr. Lee rejects the idea that Shakspere knew Livy's version of the legend merely through Painter's "Palace of Pleasure," and gives reasons for assuming a knowledge of the original on the part of the poet. Here, as in his discussion of the earlier poem, our editor has collected many parallels in phrase, imagery and sentiment between Shakspere's work and works of his contemporaries; and if in some cases any actual dependence of the one on the other may strike the reader as accidental or fanciful—especially in the case of certain conceits which any poet might easily have lighted upon in the time of the Renaissance, when conceit-hunting was the most habitual occupation of the whole fraternity of poets—still, the results of such investigation were well worth recording.

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Next to the introductions to Shakspere's two great narrative poems—or even perhaps before these—the division of Mr. Lee's work which will attract most immediately the attention of the reader is that which deals with the question of the Sonnets. It is with this branch of Shakspere's production that the editor's name is most indissolubly connected, and it is to the study of these poems that he has made the most original and valuable contributions. Mr. Lee had already threshed out the problems of the Sonnets, from his well-known point of view, so thoroughly in his 'Life of Shakspere,' and more indirectly in his 'Elizabethan Sonnets,' that there remained little for him to do but to reproduce the arguments of these earlier publications. To be sure, he has limited himself in this place mainly to the bibliographical history of the Sonnets and the problems involved in the circumstances of their publication. Nevertheless, partly by the aid of Professor McClumpha's articles on the subject, it seems to us that he has here established better than has been done elsewhere the fact that the great majority of Shakspere's Sonnets belong to the earliest period of his production—say, before 1597. Mr. Lee has also given in this volume additional details in regard to the men who were concerned in one way or another with the publication of the Sonnets. With respect to the famous dedication which Thorpe (for whom the Sonnets were published) prefixed to the collection, Mr. Lee adds new examples of "beget" in the sense of 'procure,' and, what is perhaps of even more interest, a parallel instance where the procurer of a collection of poems, 'Belvedere, or the Garden of the Muses' (1600), is addressed in a dedicatory sonnet in the name of the publisher as

"First causer and collectour of these floures."

It will be readily granted that Shakspere had nothing to do with the publication of the Sonnets, and so was not responsible for the language of the dedication; but, after all, "beget" with the signification of 'procure' was evidently rare, and, even in the case of some of the examples cited by Mr. Lee, its common meaning of 'generate,' though in figurative use, suits the passages just as well. The natural interpretation of Thorpe's words, as it appears to us, is that he knew by report who was the young man of the Sonnets, and so dedicated the collection to that person. It seems too much to assume of the impudence even of a piratical publisher like Thorpe that he should have been wishing "eternitie" (*i. e.*, of fame) to some man of obscure station in life, who, indeed, if our editor's theory be correct, is most likely to have been a mere literary scavenger. On the general question of the relative proportion of convention and personal history which underlie the Sonnets, no one can deny that Mr. Lee by his investigations has shown that the latter element is restricted to a degree that had been suspected by only a few since the revival of interest in these poems about the end of the eighteenth century. It seems to us, however, we confess, that he has not yet quite succeeded in driving the "dark lady" (as a living personality) from the field.

The sections on "The Passionate Pilgrim" and "Pericles, Prince of Tyre" demand no especial comment, but the same high level of scholarship is maintained in these parts of the volume as elsewhere. It is a pity, however, that, in his discussion of the "Pericles," Mr. Lee should make no mention of what is unquestionably the ablest book that has been written concerning the legend on which this play is based—namely, Klebs's 'Die Erzählung von Apollonius aus Tyrus' (1899); a work of a very different order of scholarship from the bibliographical compilation which is actually cited by Mr. Lee.

In conclusion we will say that not the least valuable feature of the present work is the census of extant copies of the early editions, which forms a part of the introduction to each of the poems or collection of poems here reproduced in facsimile. Each exemplar is described in detail and its history given, where practicable. And here it is interesting to observe how many of these precious volumes have taken part in the great movement which we once heard a German speaker describe as the "Bücherwanderung nach Amerika." Copies even of the first editions of most of these works have found their way to libraries in this division of what Carlyle has called the realm of King Shakspere; and of the two works which constitute exceptions—namely, "Venus and Adonis" and the mainly spurious "Passionate Pilgrim"—it may be remarked that in the case of the former even in England only one copy of the *editio princeps* survives, and in the case of the latter only two.

Canada as It Is. By John Foster Fraser. Cassell & Co. 1905.

Mr. Fraser's keynote may be assumed from the opening paragraphs to be one of disparagement:

"I have chosen the title, 'Canada as It Is,' for three reasons. Firstly, because the popular idea about the great Dominion is that it is a region clasped most of the year in ice and frost, which it is not; secondly, because the Canadians themselves, by means of Government pamphlets and subsidized lecturers, would like the world to believe it the most delightful land to live in, which it isn't; and, thirdly, because Canada has just emerged from its adolescence as a nation, has reached lusty manhood, and has become conscious of the great rôle it may play in the history of commerce."

"The chief asset in the Canadian's character is glorious enthusiasm and belief in himself and his country. Britons are predisposed to take a pessimistic view of things. The Canadian revels in optimism. He lives in a whirl of it. He is always comparing himself to John Bull, to his own satisfaction and the detriment of John. He welcomes with open arms—and his hospitality is warm and unstinted—anybody from the 'old country,' yet he is unable to conceive how any one can pass through the Dominion without being in constant ecstasy."

These paragraphs were probably written when the author first landed in Little Canada, and before he had breathed the exhilarating air and been inspired by the enthusiasm of the Greater Canada which is being so rapidly created west of the Great Lakes. These are to Old Canada what the Alleghenies were to the original Thirteen States. The Maritime Provinces are left out of Mr. Fraser's estimate altogether; but Quebec, with its antiquities, religious, social and architectural, and its peculiar racial contrasts (for they are not antitheses); and Montreal, with its growing commerce and arrogant self-importance; Ottawa, the political capital, with its governing classes and its quarrelling legislators, inflated with as much bombastic pride as though they controlled the destinies of and made laws for sixty millions instead of six millions of people; and Toronto, with its exclusively English population, tinctured by Yankeeism—are elements Mr. Fraser tries to arrange into equations from which he has deduced certain definite solutions. The conclusion is not very distinct, and the impressions were apparently not altogether pleasant.

In the paragraph quoted, he speaks of Canada as having attained to manhood. That it has not yet done, though it is rapidly growing to man's estate; but, like a healthy, well-grown youth, it feels its strength and frets under the trammels which forbid it the privileges of full manhood. It occupies and resents the nominally subordinate position of a colony, but is glad enough to enjoy the prestige of being a part of the British Empire, and to take shelter under the ægis of British protection. It submits to arbitration methods, as in defining the Alaska boundary; and yet, like a passionate, spoiled child, it howls over the award which does not give it all it cries for. These little traits (incident to immaturity among other communities than those north of the St. Lawrence) impress a stranger rather offensively; but, as our author's experience proves, there is a freer spirit abroad in the West, where, however, fewer prejudices and perhaps, therefore, fewer restraining safeguards against extremes in thought and action may act as countervailing advantages.

The Canadian West in these respects is but a faint reflection of our own, for the riotous license of the Texan cowboy has never infected the more staid cattle rancher of Calgary, and law and order have always been introduced into even such remote gold camps as Dawson, in the Klondike, at as rapid a pace as the gold hunter maintained in his headlong rush for the precious metal. Farming has always been as much ahead of mining in far-western Canada as the prairie is in extent wider than the Rocky Mountains, on the forty-ninth parallel. The development of Canada has therefore been less romantic, but also slower than our own. Nor would its present growth be as rapid as it is, were it not that Canada has still millions and millions of acres to give away, while wellnigh all fertile land south of the line has passed from under the control of our own Government. As long as land was procurable under the Homestead Act in our temperate zone, few farmers were tempted to accept it in Canada, though given away with a charming, bracing climate, where the temperature occasionally dropped to fifty degrees below zero, and where early August frosts jeoparded two out of every three wheat crops. But just as the operation of civilized man in our own arid region has extended the line of rainfall for hundreds of miles to the west and south, the cause being the disturbance of the atmosphere by our railroad trains, or the influence of the vegetation which he has raised by artificial irrigation, or some other unexplained agency, so in Manitoba

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and other parts of the Canadian Northwest, by like influences and the drainage of the swamps, the severity of the climate has been notably mitigated, and fewer crops are lost by early frost than were damaged ten years ago. As a result, the immigration into Canada, mainly into the western provinces, has increased from 23,895 in 1900 to 130,331 in 1904, of which 45,229 were from this country, for the American farmer must follow his habit of improving his farm, selling it at a high figure, and occupying another piece of waste land, even though it carry him across the border.

Thanks to these causes the Canadian West shipped, as the harvest of 1905, 90,000 bushels of wheat, and every interest in the Dominion responds, as it does here, to the prosperity of the farmer. Above all, railroad building has received such an impetus that three new transcontinental lines are either under construction or under contract, intended to open up the Northwest almost to the headwaters of the Mackenzie River, and to traverse the vast forests lying between the Height of Land, north of the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes, and Hudson Bay. Thither, as neither the rainfall nor the scenery will be interfered with by the ruthless axe of the wood-pulp maker, it is to be hoped that he will transfer his mills and his political methods from the Adirondacks and our own rapidly vanishing forests. What natural wealth is hidden in these bleak regions, in the unexplored peninsula of Labrador, and in the two million square miles of dreary country north of the Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta prairies we may calculate from the discoveries made in the Klondike and Alaska, which were supposed until lately to yield only salmon and seals.

Looking at "Canada as it is," we see it to consist of a country of 3,745,000 square miles, much of it within the Arctic circle, inhabited by less than 6,000,000 people, of whom 70 per cent. are congregated on the banks of the St. Lawrence and Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron. There is, therefore, breathing space, as the density is only 1.7 per square mile. But they are a fairly prosperous people, producing from their farms, fisheries and industries, $185 per head. They have expended above $100,000,000 on canals, and maintain 20,000 miles of paying railroads—or about the same mileage per head of population as ourselves.

But Canada as it will, or may, be is whatever one wishes to believe, and the Canadians have some reason to believe what they wish. The Trans-Canada, the Canadian Northern (the Mackenzie-Mann Railroad), and the Grand Trunk Pacific are being built across the continent to Hamilton Inlet, the point of delimitation on the Pacific Coast between ourselves and Canada. These transcontinental railroads are expected to open up a wheat area as large as our own, inasmuch as there is now confirmation of the earlier statements that a temperate climate and fertile land extend along the eastern foot of the Rocky Mountains for nearly 1,000 miles north of the international boundary. On the banks of the great Mackenzie River, which is open to navigation for almost as many summer months as the port of Duluth, oil is said to flow as freely as from the Baku wells; lead and other minerals crop out abundantly on its banks, and Hearn has told us of the native copper on his Copper River; so that imagination can run riot over what the 2,000,000 miles of unexplored territory may produce. Much of this is set forth attractively in Mr. Fraser's little book.

The Truth about the Tsar, and the Present State of Russia. By Carl Joubert. London: Everleigh Nash; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1905.

In our notice of 'Russia As It Really Is,' by Mr. Joubert, we had occasion to point out the author's "popular" style and reckless inaccuracies, bred, in part, of overconfidence, in part of neglect to verify quotations and statements of "facts." The present volume, which forms a sort of sequel to the one just mentioned, is characterized by like qualities. Evidently, they meet the approval of publishers and public, as this is the third edition. Its appearance is somewhat belated, as it contains several prophecies regarding the state of affairs after the war between Russia and Japan shall have been concluded. But as it contains much besides the interest of comparing prophecy with fulfilment (or, rather, in the present case, with non-fulfilment), which is likely to impress the non-critical or the badly informed reader, it may properly be treated as current literature rather than a dead issue.

The late author (for the bearer of the pseudonym "Carl Joubert" has just passed away) sets out with the assumption that his previous volumes were criticised because they were too much in advance of public opinion. He then says: "My predictions have been realized. The Autocrat's massacre of unarmed, peaceful Christians by hired Moslems on January 23 ended the armistice between the people and the Romanoffs." This is nothing short of amazing, but has its value in that it furnishes, at the start, an excellent example of the author's method. As the Preface from which we extract it is dated "February, 1905," the occasion alluded to can be none other than the one popularly known as "bloody Sunday," when the troops fired upon the processions of striking workmen in front of the Winter Palace and elsewhere in St. Petersburg. The Tartars and Moslems, in general, dodge military service by devices perfectly well understood, so that the proportion of them in the army is very small. The author probably refers to the Kazaks, many of whom belong to the sect of Old Ritualists in the Eastern Catholic Church.

Another typical instance of misinterpreted facts occurs in a paragraph about Alexander III. After saying that he swore like a "strugovtchik" (the Russian word is correct, for once), which would have been equally forcible had its English equivalent, "bargee" (employed immediately afterward), been used, we are told: "His courage was not equal to his bad manners. It was two years before he would trust himself to face the ordeal of coronation, dreading the fate of his father if he ventured out of his palace of Gatschina." One feels inclined to ask Mr. Joubert, Why was there any delay in crowning the present King of England? The explanation is deplorably prosaic in both cases. A gorgeous ceremonial, with its innumerable and complicated details, robes, and the rest, requires time for preparation. Before Alexander III. was crowned, the vast State rooms in the Kremlin palace, as well as the extensive private apartments, were rehung and refurnished, the cloth of gold and silver and brocades being woven for the occasion, as they were for the elaborately embroidered mantles, thrones, and so forth. It may not be amiss to remark, also, that Alexander III. was in the habit of driving about his capital daily, in open equipages, with the unostentation and freedom of a private person—not escorted by troops like Queen Victoria or the President of the French Republic.

When our author pays his respects to the Emperor Nicholas II. on the score of cowardice, he asserts that, during that sovereign's visit to France, "twice a day he received absolution from his chaplain. . . . A Pope of the Orthodox Church used to lick his left eye twice a day as a preventative [*sic*] against the machinations of the Nihilists." The first statement displays a lamentable ignorance in matters of the Church concerning which Mr. Joubert has made numerous remarkable assertions with an air of supreme authority. Absolution is given only after confession, immediately preceding the reception of the communion, which cannot possibly be taken more than once a day, even by an ordained priest. As for statement No. 2, we can only say that our author's facetious informant must have been thoroughly satisfied with the test of credulity thus applied. Equally unreliable is the assertion that the Greek Church teaches the peasant: "As great as God is in heaven, so great is our Tsar on earth." In this connection it may be remarked that, as religious freedom has been granted since the publication of this volume, most of the comments on that subject have lost whatever force they may have originally possessed; notably, the prediction that, given religious freedom, "the Greek Church throughout all Russia would be powerless." The State Church has cordially welcomed religious freedom for other sects, and desires reforms in its own affairs, with the confident expectation that these new conditions will strengthen its hold upon the affections of its members by conviction, while permitting the discontented to depart and remove with them elements of discord.

The reiterated and positive assertion that the Emperor would never accept any draft of a Constitution has been falsified by events, and falls into the discredited category along with those on religion. As to the fitness for self-government on the part of the Russian people, Mr. Joubert is, undoubtedly, right in holding that, "with all their ignorance and fatalism, the Russian moujiks are as well fitted for self-government as some of the inhabitants of New York State, or Pennsylvania, or as the lynch-law element of the Southern States." This, although intrinsically not very high praise, at least puts the case clearly. Equally true are the sentences which follow, and a little local application might be respectfully suggested to the author:

"All that the people of Russia ask is that the rest of the world should mind their own business, and abstain from interference with the internal affairs of Russia. They have neither asked nor received any benefits from foreigners, and they have no intention of meddling in their affairs. The

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development of their own country and the amelioration of their own people will keep them fully occupied for many years to come."

Later on he says: "I may be told that it is no business of mine—then I make it *my business;" on the ground that he has* been "a tramp" for many years in Russia.

As our author indulges in fewer Russian words than in his former volume his errors are fewer; but he seems to have acquired an inveterate habit of wedding plural adjectives or pronouns to nouns in the singular number, and "anglisky podletz" means "English scoundrel," not (as rendered) "carrion." Why he persists in confusing readers by calling the Dowager Empress Marie Feodorovna "Marie Dagmar"—she discarded the "Dagmar" forever on her reception into the Russian Church before her marriage—and Tsarskoe Selo "Natsarskoe Selo," is a puzzle, unless it be explicable by that general inaccuracy of mind to which we have repeatedly referred, instanced by "Il Troubadour" as the title of a well-known opera. His fine tribute to the ineradicable home-love of Russians is thoroughly merited, and his firm faith in Russia's future is assuredly well founded. Whether his vision of the flag of the United States of Russia flying over the Kremlin (practically, the only one of his prophecies which has not come utterly to naught within the book's little life-span of a year) is well founded, remains to be seen.

Edward MacDowell. By Lawrence Gilman. John Lane.

Fuller accounts of MacDowell's life than that contained in Mr. Gilman's volume have been printed in the *Century Magazine* and the London *Musical Times*; but as his volume comprises only seventy-seven pages, he probably felt that he could not spare more than a dozen for biographic details that do not help to throw light on the character of the composer's works. Edward MacDowell has often been called "the American Grieg," and it is an odd coincidence (as well as a fact that does throw light on his works) that America's most original composer, like Norway's, had a paternal great-grandfather who was a Scotchman. The American's paternal great-grandmother, on the other hand, was born in Ireland. His mother, Frances M. Knapp, was a young American woman of English antecedents, and his father was born in America. From him he inherited the Celtic qualities of his genius, concerning which Mr. Gilman has much to say:

"It is the heroic Gaelic world that MacDowell has made to live again in his music: that miraculous world of stupendous passions and aspirations, of bards and heroes and sublime adventure—the world of Cuchullin the unconquerable, and Laeg, and Queen Meave; of Naesi, and Deirdré the Beautiful, and Fergus, and Connla the Harper, and those kindred figures, lovely or greatly tragical, that are like no other figures in the world's mythologies."

Notwithstanding the Celtic note in much of his music, MacDowell is undoubtedly the most distinctively American of all our composers. The subtle problem as to wherein his Americanism lies, Mr. Gilman does not try to solve; he does, however, protest against the notion that an "American" art must necessarily be evolved from negro and Indian melodies. Concerning the "Indian Suite," in which songs of the Iroquois and Iowa Indians are used as themes, he says:

"Although MacDowell in this suite has admittedly derived his basic material from the North American aborigines, he has never, so far as I am aware, claimed that his impressive and noble score constitutes, for that reason, a representatively national utterance. He realizes, doubtless, that territorial propinquity is quite a different thing from racial affinity; and that a musical art derived from either Indian or Ethiopian sources can be 'American' only in a partial and quite unimportant sense."

To Mr. Gilman, MacDowell is the saviour and representative of the romantic spirit in music at a time when men like Richard Strauss, Debussy, D'Indy, Elgar, Loeffler are exhibiting other impulses and tendencies. With these "new men"—whom our author also admires, while others regard them with the same horror as they do the "new women"—MacDowell has nothing in common. His supple, broad, fresh, spontaneous melody contrasts strikingly with the "hesitant melodic contours," the "unceasing avoidance of definite patterns" in the works of the men just named. Nor does he indulge in the "intricate exfoliations" which give so peculiar a flavor to the harmonic schemes of the "new men." "It is in the novel disposition of familiar material, rather than in the discovery and exposition of new elements, that MacDowell's emphatic individuality consists," the author informs us. "Whether it is a more signal achievement to create a new speech through the imaginative readjustment of established locutions than to evolve it from fresh and unworked elements, is open to debate." This point seems well taken, but it loses some of its value when we bear in mind that the "fresh and unworked elements" in the compositions of the "new men" consist chiefly in making a sport of cacophony for its own sake, and in deliberately violating all the moral laws and conventions of music.

The least satisfactory of Mr. Gilman's chapters is that on the songs, the most satisfactory that on the sonatas. Grieg once compared the typical critic to a wet poodle who comes into the parlor and selects the best piece of furniture to lie down on. One cannot help thinking of this on reading the author's remarks on "Menie," one of the most wonderful songs ever composed in America or anywhere. In a footnote he grudgingly admits its beauty, but in the text he descants on an alleged "indifference to justness of declamatory utterance" in two or three words, which in truth is not worth mentioning, and which will bother no experienced singer. The assertion that "in his songs the composer does not often achieve an ideal correspondence between the significance of the text and the effect of his music" is preposterous. We should say, on the contrary, that the music of these songs is "dyed in the wool" of the underlying poems. It could hardly be otherwise in the case of a composer who made even his piano pieces for the most part echo the spirit of the poetic lines prefixed to them.

That MacDowell is, "in a singularly complete sense, the poet of the natural world," yet no less the "instrument of human emotion"; that the range of his emotional expression is astonishing; that he has a remarkable gift for extremely compact expression; that his music is "touched with the deep and wistful tenderness, the primeval nostalgia"; that much of its charm lies in its spontaneity and the utter lack of self-consciousness; that no musician has ever felt the spell of the ocean as has MacDowell, whose "Sea Pieces" are full of the "glamour, the awe, the mystery of the sea; of its sinister and terrible beauty, but also of its toxic charm, its secret allurement"—these and other characteristic points Mr. Gilman dwells on, thus giving his readers as good an idea of the music as can be obtained without hearing it. It is to be regretted that no bibliographic note has been appended.

The Basses, Fresh-water and Marine. By William C. Harris and Tarleton H. Bean. Edited and illustrated by Louis Rhead. The Frederick A. Stokes Co. 1905.

Fishes I Have Known. By Arthur H. Beavan. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: A. Wessels Co. 1905.

The literature of angling is of the same uncertain character as the sport itself. The net result of your hours of effort is apt to be slight in either case, and yet the devotee is never willing to admit that his time has been wasted. The brook brings you into pleasant contact with nature, even if the trout refuse to rise, and if one possess a fairly active imagination the book may do the same, even if it fails to satisfy all applicable objective tests of good literature. It is chiefly from this point of view that we must commend the sumptuous volume which Mr. Rhead has devoted to the basses, for one does not really find any striking positive merits to distinguish it from other literature available on the same subject. Friends of the late William C. Harris will, of course, be interested in his portion of the book as his last literary effort, and for that reason we deplore the blunder which has been allowed to mar his discussion of the names of the two species of black bass known to inland anglers, the one point upon which Mr. Harris doubtless expended his most laborious efforts for strict accuracy. We are told on page five that there are two species of black bass—the small-mouthed, *Micropterus Dolomici*, and the large mouthed *Micropterus Salmoides*. Those who do not need the information at all are aware that this is correct, but the uninformed will be disturbed by an exact reversal of the names only two pages further on. The carelessness cannot be fairly attributed to Mr. Harris, for he was lying in St. Vincent's Hospital, never to emerge alive, when the book went through the press. Editor and proof-readers should have done their part more conscientiously under such circumstances. Mr. Harris is like Dr. Henshall in ranking the black bass even above the brook trout as a game fish, though he is willing to admit the comparative inferiority of the large-mouthed variety—a thing Dr. Henshall could never be induced to do.

It must be said in general that there is no very good reason for grouping all the so-called basses together in a single book, as the name indicates no scientific connection, nor have the various kinds of "basses" any game qualities in common. About one-third of the present treatise is given to the marine species, which are described by Dr. Tarleton H. Bean. Mr.

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Rhead contributes chapters on the cooking of bass, the choice of flies, and bass in the Beaverkill. Upon the reception which this volume receives, we are told, depends the carrying out of plans for a "Library of Rod and Reel," to cover the entire field. Such a series might find a market sufficient to justify its existence from the business point of view, but the best angling literature comes when the pen is moved by the spirit, not by the call of the maker of books.

Mr. Beavan's volume might almost be described as the ichthyological section of a popular cyclopædia of natural history, so numerous and varied are the forms described. It is a book which any intelligent reader might presumably enjoy if he enjoys animate life, travel, and adventure of any kind; but we imagine the average ten-year-old boy would read it with keener interest and more profit than the angler. The yellowish-green binding is hardly an æsthetic success, nor, to revert to the other volume, does the eye find any satisfaction in the whim of decorating its cover in the likeness of the skin of a striped bass. Both books are in the main well illustrated, but if Mr. Rhead intended to represent a bass rising from the water in the picture entitled "The Best Time for Bass," he has sadly missed the likeness.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, Franklin T., and George R. Carpenter. First, Second, Third, Fourth, Fifth, Sixth-Year Language Readers. 6 vols. Macmillan Co.
Chamberlin, Frederick. In the Shoe-String Country. Boston: C. M. Clark Publishing Co.
Dubois, Joseph. L'Empire de L'Argent: Etude sur la Chine Financière. Paris: E. Guilmoto.
Fawcett, Mrs. Henry. Five Famous French Women: Cassell & Co. $2.
Hardy, E. J. What Men Like in Women. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1 net.
International Dictionary of Booksellers. 7th issue. Rochdale: James Clegg.
Journal de l'Estoile. Edited by Armand Brette. Paris: Armand Colin.
Krausz, Sigmund. Automobile Dictionary. F. A. Stokes Co.
La Bruyère's Les Caractères. Edited by F. M. Warren. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Marshall, Thomas. Aristotle's Theory of Conduct. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
O'Shea, M. V. Dynamic Factors in Education. Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.
Paternoster, G. Sidney. The Cruise of the Conqueror. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.50.
Phillmore, Ioannes. Index Verborum Propertianus. Henry Frowde. 4s. 6d. net.
Pierce, Charles C. The Hunger of the Heart for Faith, and Other Sermons. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. $1 net.
Plutarch's Lives. Translated by W. R. Frazer. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan Co.
Salone, Emile. La Colonisation de la Nouvelle-France. Paris: E. Guilmoto.
Sidgwick, Henry. A Memoir, by A. S. & E. M. S. Macmillan Co. $4.
Thurston, Lucy Meacham. Called to the Field. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Tynan, Katharine. Dick Pentreath. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Watts-Dunton, Theodore. The Coming of Love. John Lane Co.
Westermarck, Edward. The Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas. Vol. I. Macmillan Co. $3.50.

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